MEMOIRS OF THE LIFE OF DR. PETER HEYLIN.

With his Portrait, elegantly engraved.

PETER HEYLIN was born at Burford in Oxfordſhire, on the 29th of November 1600. The family from which he deſcended had been long ſeated at Pentric-Heylin, in Montgomeryſhire.

At an early age, he was diſtinguiſhed by remarkable vivacity of genius, and by early poetical ambition. At ſchool he wrote a tragi-comedy on the wars and diſaſters of Troy. In the thirteenth year of his age, he had made ſuch progreſs in his ſtudies, that he was ready to leave ſchool for the univerſity.

He became, in the year 1613, a ſtudent in Harthall, in the univerſity of Oxford. In 1615, he was elected to a ſcholarſhip in Magdalen college, where he produced a tragedy, to which he gave the name of *Spurius*, which was repreſented in the apartments of the preſident, Dr. Langton.

He afterward read lectures on Coſmography, or Geography, which produced him much popularity, and exalted his reputation in the univerſity. The ſtudy was then new at Oxford. Munſter in Germany, his tranſlator Belleſoreſts in France, and Ortelius, in Holland, had produced works on Univerſal Geography, of which the fame and utility were great and extenſive. Camden had honoured his country with a topographical hiſtory, the moſt elaborate and ſatisfactory that had been ſeen in ancient or modern times. A taſte for the knowledge of geography or coſmography had, eſpecially ſince the era of the Portugueſe and Spaniſh diſcoveries in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, become continually more general in England. Heylin had the merit of being the firſt to recommend it at Oxford to the dignity of a peculiar academical ſtudy. The undertaking, and its ſucceſs, were ſufficient to confer eminent diſtinction on ſo young a man. He was accordingly elected to a fellowſhip in his college, when he was only in the nineteenth year of his age.

He continued to proſecute with zeal the ſtudy in which his endeavours were ſo fortunate. He publiſhed in the year 1621, the ſubſtance of his lectures, corrected and expanded, under the title of 'Microcoſmus, or a Deſcription of the Great World.' Its reception in the world was highly favourable, and in 1624, it was republiſhed in a ſecond edition. It was dedicated to prince Charles, and was read by king James himſelf with great delight; eſpecially after the author had expunged a paſſage in which he had inadvertently attributed to the ſovereigns of France the precedency in Chriſtendom before thoſe of Great Britain. The work was reprinted in many ſucceeding editions; and was gradually enlarged till it came to fill a bulky folio.

In the year 1625, Heylin made an excurſion to France. His memoir of the particulars which he obſerved on this journey, was at the diſtance of thirty years afterward made public by himſelf.

In April 1627, in purſuance of the theological direction of his ſtudies, he performed exerciſes on theſe two queſtions: 'Whether the true church was ever inviſible?' and 'whether it be poſſible for the church to err?' In his exerciſes, he maintained the affirmative, in anſwer to both theſe queſtions. His affirmations were vehemently impugned by Dr. Prideaux, profeſſor of divinity; who even accuſed Heylin of a popiſh adherence to the doctrines of Bellarmine, for having dared to maintain them. Such a charge was at that time dangerous to the quiet and reputation of any perſon, againſt whom it was feaſibly advanced. Heylin took the more an early opportunity to vindicate himſelf againſt Prideaux' accuſation, in a ſermon preached before king Charles

the firſt, in which he warmly argued againſt ſome of the errors of popery.

In the year 1628, he was recommended by his friend, the earl of Danby, to the favour of Dr. Laud, then biſhop of Bath and Wells. Upon the friendly recommendation of Laud, he was, in 1629, nominated a chaplain in ordinary to the king.

A ſermon againſt a knaviſh and unjuſt ſcheme, then in a train of execution for the buying in of lay impropriations, was preached by him, in the year 1630, on Act-Sunday, at Oxford, which gave great ſatisfaction to thoſe who were capable of diſcerning the injuſtice and perfidy of that deſign.

Having married, he reſigned his fellowſhip.

He publiſhed in the year 1631, a Hiſtory of St. George of Cappadocia, the patron-ſaint of England: with an account ſubjoined of the inſtitution of the order of St. George, or the Garter.

His merits as a divine and a ſcholar, were now eminently conſpicuous. He was now of an age when preferment could be no longer reaſonably denied him on account of his youth. His principles in matters of church and ſtate, were ſufficiently a-kin to thoſe of Laud, now biſhop of London, by whoſe advice all eccleſiaſtical affairs were almoſt implicitly adminiſtered. In October 1631, he was preſented by the king to the rectory of Hemmingford, in Huntingdonſhire. In the ſubſequent month of November, he was further gratified with a prebend in Weſtminſter cathedral. He obtained ſoon after the valuable rectory of Houghton, in the biſhopric of Durham.

In the month of April 1633, he was raiſed at Oxford to the degree of Doctor in Divinity. His public diſputations were, on this occaſion, upon theſe three queſtions:—'Whether the church have authority to determine, in controverſies of faith? Whether the church have authority to interpret the holy ſcriptures? Whether the church have authority to appoint rites and ceremonies? The affirmative poſitions, which he maintained in anſwer to theſe queſtions, were again impugned by Prideaux; and the diſputation was managed between them with no ſmall aſperity.

Prideaux affected the favour of the puritans; yet had publiſhed a Latin lecture upon the ſubject of the religious obſervance of the ſabbath, in which he did not inſiſt on that rigorous ſanctification of this day, which puritanical zeal required. The king ſoon afterward, authorized by proclamation, Sunday ſports, of which the profaneneſs was, by the puritans, contemplated with horror. Heylin, pleaſed to wreſt the authority of the book of Prideaux to a purpoſe, which might render its author odious to his very friends, tranſlated that lecture into Engliſh; prefixed a large preface; and, in 1633-4, made the whole public, as a defence of the royal proclamation againſt the puritans. Prideaux*, viewed the artifice with inexpreſſible vexation and reſentment.

Heylin, thus zealouſly ſubſervient to the views of Laud, was naturally rewarded from time to time with new preferments. He ſucceeded archbiſhop Williams, in the year 1637, in the office of treaſurer to the church of Weſtminſter. He was in the ſame year preſented by the chapter of that church to the rectory of Iſlip, near Oxford, a living in their gift. This he exchanged in the year 1638, for the rectory of South-Warnborough in Hampſhire. He was that ſame year nominated to be one of the juſtices of the peace for that county.

When the grand rebellion broke out, Heylin ſtill continued bold in his wonted zeal for the intereſts of the epiſcopal church and the royal power. When the king left London, Heylin

* This was not the famous Dr. Humphrey Prideaux, but Dr. John Prideaux, who, after being thirty-two years profeſſor of divinity at Oxford, became, in 1641, biſhop of Wincheſter, and died in 1650, at the age of ſeventy two.

retired to his parſonage in Hampſhire. Even there he began to think his ſafety in danger; and, after a time, went to join the king at Oxford. He was, upon this, ſtigmatized by the long parliament, as a delinquent; his eſtate was ſequeſtered, and his goods were ſeized by their order. He regretted eſpecially, the loſs of his library, which was very valuable.

At Oxford, he did not remain idle. By the king's command, he there wrote, and publiſhed for ſome time, a weekly paper of news and political diſcuſſion, under the title of 'Mercurius Aulicus.'

In 1645, when the royal cauſe became more deſperate, and the Mercurius Aulicus was diſcontinued, Dr. Heylin quitted Oxford, and with his family wandered for a time from place to place, unable to find any ſecure reſidence, and in great difficulties for the very means of ſubſiſtence.

At Wincheſter, he found a temporary retreat, in which he remained with his wife, till that city could no longer hold out againſt the forces of the parliament.

He paſſed the next ſix or ſeven years of his life at Minſter-Lovel, in Oxfordſhire, the ſeat of the family of his elder brother; and paid rent for the houſe, and the adjoining farm to colonel Heylin, his nephew. From Minſter-Lovel, he removed to Abingdon, and there continued to reſide till the era of the reſtoration.

His ſervent mind could not languiſh in inactivity: during his retirement at Minſter-Lovel and at Abingdon, he continued to proſecute his ſtudies with inceſſant diligence, and compoſed a variety of books. His loyalty and epiſcopal zeal were unſhaken by his misfortunes. He wrote nothing that had not, directly or indirectly, a tendency to ſerve the intereſts of the royal cauſe; and he made no ſacrifice of principles to perſonal convenience or ſafety.

After the reſtoration, he was reſtored to the enjoyment of all his former preferments in the church. His hopes of further emoluments and honours were, however, like thoſe of many others on the ſame occaſion, diſappointed. He died May 8, 1662.

His perſon was mean, his ſpirit bold, his eloquence lively and fluent. His works are pregnant with acute and ſubtle argumentation, with much important knowledge, moral, hiſtorical, and theological, unfolded in a clear, vigorous, and correct ſtyle.

THE GLEANER.

NUMBER XLII.

O rus, quando ego te aſpiciam? HOR.

What is all that to Fleet-ſtreet? JAMES BOSWELL.

THOSE months of the year return, when they who are weary of that buſtle of labour, buſineſs, and diſſipation, which pervades the town, of its appearances of art, excluding the inviolated charms of nature, of its inceſſant colliſions of human intereſts, pretenſions, humours, follies, and crimes, gladly withdraw, to breathe the pure untainted breezes which blow over the fields; to mark where the vegetative energies of nature predominate over intermeddling art; to muſe in ſolitudes into which the din of ſociety may ſcarcely penetrate; and, if poſſible, to recover a reliſh for all that is pleaſing in human converſe, by forgetting thoſe annoyances which were felt amid too long a delay in its more crowded ſcenes.

At this moment, they who are impatiently haſtening from the town to the country, of courſe regard the former with all the diſguſt due to a place of miſerable confinement. Yet, long before the return of winter, the very ſame perſons will haſten back from that to which they now run as to

a paradiſe, with the ſame feelings of ſhrinking diſlike, as if they were eſcaping with difficulty from ſome interminable ſandy waſte, or from ſome deſolate iſle, marked with no veſtiges of the Divine Beneficence.

It may be no uſeleſs taſk, therefore, if the Gleaner ſhall now endeavour, by the faithful compariſon of the advantages of a 'Town Life,' with thoſe of a 'Life in the Country;' to obviate, in this inſtance, ſome of the deluſions to which, by their hopes and fears, their diſguſts and violent likings, men are naturally ſubject in thoſe concerns eſpecially on which their happineſs and virtue the moſt immediately depend. This is, in truth, a ſubject which has come often under diſcuſſion; yet, in comparing mutually the town life and the country life, in the regards of the innocent Pleaſures, the excitements to Virtue, and the opportunities of enlarging and enriching the mind with uſeful Knowledge, which they reſpectively afford; I cannot but hope, that I may be enabled to ſuggeſt ſomething capable of engaging the attention of any ingenuous reader.

Man was made to reliſh, with genuine joy, thoſe innocent Pleaſures, which the very aſpect of rural nature, eſpecially when vegetation unfolds all its energies, preſents to all.—There is ſomething in the genial breezes of a May morning, rich in pure vital air, pregnant with an electricity and a heat which make them ſoft and temperate, waſted with no rough violence, and ſeeming as it were the divine breath of the very ſpirit of nature—ſomething which is, even without reflection, inexpreſſibly refreſhing to the ſenſe. When the light of the ſun breaks out clear and vivid, though not in its full ſtrength, enlivening, and yet but partly illuminating the ſhades; mingling its lucid whiteneſs with the other colours of the ſcene; brightening every other colour on which it falls; and ſtimulating even the human eye to new quickneſs of viſion; how much, how very much, is added to the charm! Oh! I have ſtood on ſuch a morning, on a wooded bank, while a murmuring brook paſſed at a ſmall diſtance below; a marſhy meadow, and beyond it a moated hill ſpread out before me to the right; on the left, were cultivated fields lightly ſkirted with wood; and ſtill further to the left, was an antique manſion-houſe emboſomed in trees; I have ſtood in ſuch a ſituation, and have felt a ſudden delight, ſuch as if I had been removed at once from all the turmoil of this earth, as if ſorrow had been for ever effaced from my boſom, as if all thoſe cares, of which the ſenſe would ſoon again intrude, were but the phantoms of an unquiet dream. Sometimes, amid the changes of the face of the ſky, appearances ſtill more raviſhingly intereſting will ariſe. The moſt remarkable one of this ſort which I can remember to have beheld, preſented itſelf once to my eyes as I paſſed on horſeback over a bleak heathy moor, ſkirting a cultivated and highly ornamented region, of which the level roſe to an elevation conſiderably higher than that of the moor. A thunder-ſtorm had darkened the ſurrounding ſcene, as I approached to where the view of the cultivated part of the country would have opened before me. The ſtorm burſt, and rain and hail fell for ſome minutes around me, with a violence as if they had been precipitated from the height of a cataract. While the rain yet continued to fall, though with leſſened violence, the clouds were partly cleared away; and I came almoſt to the very extremity of the moor. At once, as if it had been a viſion in the air, raiſed by fairy hands, the ornamented ſcenery before me broke in upon my ſight. The ſky over it was ſerene, the ſun with ſlanting rays illuminated its ſurface: it was, independently of theſe advantages, a tract rich in uncommon beauty; the foreground through which I was approaching to it, remained ſtill comparatively dark. It was like a view of the elyſian fields taken from

Tartarus. I cannot expreſs the rapture with which it ſwelled my heart. I have never in ſociety known any equal joy.—It is not only where taſte, imagination, and feeling, unite to catch theſe unſophiſticated pleaſures of nature, that the country is fitted to give genuine delight. If I walk in the roads and ſtreets of a great city, I am ſtunned with noiſe; I am ſuffocated with duſt; I am in danger of being trampled under foot, and cruſhed to death amid the ruſh of carriages. In the diſtant fields, I incur no ſuch danger, I meet no inconvenience; I can ſaunter careleſsly along, and ruminate unutterable things. The cream, the milk, the cheeſe, the butter, the eggs of the country (of all delicacies the moſt exquiſite to an unvitiated palate) are, by no care of the arts which foſter luxury, to be obtained in their native perfection in the town. The very air we breathe in town, differs from that which we may inhale in the country, not leſs, nor leſs unfavourably, than differs the filthy ſtream in the common ſewer, from the pure element, which guſhing from the ſide of a rock, babbles over the pebbled channel of the brook. Theſe are ſimple and common pleaſures, or means of pleaſure peculiar to the country, and incapable of becoming in equal perfection common to the town. What pleaſures has the town, which may deſerve to be named in compariſon with theſe?

The chief thing of which the town may boaſt, in regard to innocent and natural pleaſures, is, that though it ſupply none of theſe in a manner ſo happy or exquiſitely reliſhing as that in which the country yields them, yet it gives them in much greater variety and abundance; leaving us ultimately at a loſs for nothing for which innocent deſire can be awakened. The eye cannot here gaze on the freſh boſom of nature; but the beauties of ſculpture, of painting, and of architecture; the flower-knot, the trim parterre, the window filled with pots of earth and half-withered vegetables, the flowering ſhrub poiſoning with its perfumes the air of the drawing-room, are here to tell us, how man every where ſighs for the genuine charms of nature; how imperfectly theſe can be copied by the mimickry of art; yet with what plodding and freakiſh induſtry, art is ever labouring to feign, and to ſupply them! Inſtead of the freſh oxygenous breeze, the town gives apartments carefully ventilated, aſperſions with vinegar to clear away foul air, fires to diſpel moiſture, and ſprinklings of water to allay the arid heats. It preſents the ſpices, the ſugars, the tea, the coffee, the chocolate, the wines, and the oils of the ſouth, the eaſt, and the weſt, the regions the moſt fertile and the moſt remote, to compenſate for its inability to give the ſimple ſtores of our native land in all the genuine delicacy in which they are in nature produced. For muſing ſolitude, it preſents the wiſdom of books, of laws, and of ſocial devotions. For the cheerful babbling of brooks, the twittering ſongs of birds, and the almoſt animated growth of vegetables, it preſents to the eye and ear the various movements of art plying its labours, and all the buſy hum of men.

So much for the compariſon of the town with the country, in regard to thoſe ſimple pleaſures of ſenſe and imagination which are peculiar to each. In reſpect to their different means of exciting to Virtue, the compariſon may be rendered not leſs intereſting. In the country, it will at leaſt be owned, that there are fewer temptations to vice. Vice exiſts, not ſo much in the natural gratification of our native appetites and paſſions, as in the continual creation and indulgence of factitious deſires, and in the unſeaſonable irritation of the genuine deſires of nature, at times when theſe, if not artificially inflamed, would rather leave us in peace. Now, the country is ever, comparatively, barren of all the gratifications and excitements of artificial deſire. Its pleaſures are addreſſed to thoſe ſimple appetites,

which nature has given us to be our purveyors of the firſt neceſſaries of life, to be the guardians of our very exiſtence. It preſents few of thoſe things which pall to ſatiety and loathing; and therefore leave the ſenſe and fancy in a ſtate in which they require artificial ſtimuli, to rouſe them again to ſalutary activity. It preſents not ſociety in thoſe modes and forms, in which its intercourſe becomes irritating and ſeductive. It leads not into thoſe meditations, in the depth of which the heart and the underſtanding are the moſt liable to eſtrange themſelves from nature and from God.

But the virtue of the country may be, in compariſon, inert and feeble. The town is the region where all the energies of true virtue are naturally called into an exerciſe the moſt ſtrenuous and invigorating. It is where temptations to vice and crimes aſſail in ſo many winning forms, and with ſuch giant force to drag away the ſoul, that even bare innocence cannot be maintained without heroic virtue. Here, you mingle in crowded ſociety; and how difficult the taſk, but how noble the virtue, to check thoſe malignities and diſguſts, and ſelf preferences, which even amid the competitions of true merit and of ſocial excellence, are for ever ſpringing up in every heart! Here only is the activity of genius and of induſtry put into thoſe movements in which it acquires for man ſome portion of the providing creative power of a Divinity, and of which every one that is without vice, cannot be other than a moſt illuſtrious effort of virtue. Here, while you walk abroad amid a field of human miſery, at every ſtep you move, all the generous benignities are aſſailed with a force ſufficient to create tenderneſs and compaſſion in the very breaſt of apathy and ſelfiſhneſs. Here you are neceſſarily awake, and mingling with mankind in the inceſſant exerciſe, if not in the violation of juſtice—that virtue in which all others are, ſtrictly ſpeaking, abſorbed, and which, though in its ordinary courſe the leaſt oſtentatious of virtues, is ever far the moſt important. Here all the human affections are kept ever in full play; and man is, at once, enfeebled and ſtrengthened by being reduced into the moſt implicit dependence on human aid, yet rendered thus, even ten times more powerful over nature and fortune than while he was accuſtomed to ſtand ſullenly aloof from the reſt of the world, and to confide only in the inventions of his own mind, and in the vigour of his own ſingle arm. Yes; if I be too feeble for the exertions of active virtue, let me hide me in rural retirement: if my ſoul be not incapable of thoſe virtuous energies, which are the beſt pride of our nature, let me rather mingle in the buſy life of the town!

But compare the town with the country, in regard to their reſpective advantages for the acquiſition of Knowledge; and how ſtands the compariſon? There are certain elementary parts of our knowledge, which nothing can communicate, but the actual contemplation of the face of nature, various and intimate converſe with mankind, where they ſhow the heart the freeſt from diſguiſe, and deep reflection by every one upon what paſſes amid the varied courſe of thought and action within his own breaſt. Theſe elements of knowledge will undoubtedly be better acquired by every one in the country, than in the town. It would be unſeaſonable, to throw a youth early into the confuſion and buſtle of crowded ſociety, who, like the ſavage of Aveyron, had as yet little or no acquaintance with his own heart and powers, or with other men in the ſtudy of the characters of one or two individuals. It would be egregiouſly wrong to think of bringing any one to labour excluſively among the works of art, who knew nothing of the materials in nature out of which thoſe were produced, or of the forms after which they were modelled. And it requires ſmall pains to evince, that of others I can

learn nothing, unleſs through the medium of that ſympathy by which I reaſon to their feelings from my own. The country, then, and rural retirement, afford infinitely the beſt means for our acquiſition of thoſe firſt elements of knowledge, without which the underſtanding, however encumbered with the forms of learning, muſt remain ever an utter ſtranger to ſound common ſenſe and to genuine ſcience. The country is the proper ſcene for the right education of youth. How incredibly ignorant thoſe boys who have been educated entirely in the town!

Yet, when the mind has been once made maſter of the proper media, it ſhall not fail to find in the town its beſt ſchool for knowledge. Ingenuous curioſity is by nothing ſo much excited, as by various human converſe. It is only in the town, that you ſhall readily find all thoſe means of information by the living voice, by books, by the ſight of numberleſs aſſemblages of various objects, which ſtore the intellect with ſcience. How many regions muſt be travelled over, ere you ſhall find half thoſe eſtabliſhments of art, thoſe ſpecimens of objects in nature, thoſe exhibitions of languages and manners, which London alone, within its narrow compaſs of a few miles, can furniſh? He who is fixed in a remote provincial reſidence, if at a loſs for any one piece of information, however ſimple, in a ſeries of reſearches, muſt pauſe for months or years, perhaps, before he ſhall be able, by correſpondence and enquiries, and new readings, and poſſibly long voyages and journies, or tedious experiments, to get at that particle of information which he wants. But to the ſtudent in a metropolis like London, ſuch a deſideratum may be at any time, within a few hours, ſupplied. Beſides, there is in the continual colliſion of minds, and the reciprocal compariſon of characters in ſuch a place as London, ſomething that, in the moſt powerful and eminent manner, contributes to invigorate our reaſoning powers, and to give to the intellect a ready command of whatever knowledge it may have acquired.

Such is then the reſult of our compariſon of the town with the country, in the regards of pleaſure, virtue, and knowledge. Thoſe pleaſures of which the perfection conſiſts in their native delicacy, ſimplicity, and ſuitableneſs to the natural character of man, are to be ſought in the country. The country is the ſituation for eaſy abſtinence from vice: the town preſents the field for the ſublime, the arduous, and the heroic virtues. Elementary knowledge is beſt acquired in rural retirement: the town is the ſcene of fervour in ſcientific and moral enquiry, and of all thoſe efforts by which art and knowledge are the moſt ſucceſsfully advanced. O.

EXTRACTS *from* KARAMSIN'S JOURNEY *through the Southern Parts of* EUROPE.

The following Letter was written from Lauſanne, *by Mr.* Karamſin, *a* Ruſſian *Man of Letters, whoſe Works are in the higheſt Reputation at* Moſcow, *and who made, ſome Years ago, a Journey for Pleaſure and Inſtruction through the Middle and ſouthern Parts of Europe.*

Lauſanne.

THE way from Berne to Lauſanne paſſes through a garden, one of the fineſt I have ever ſeen. The trees on either ſide bend under the weight of the rich fruits with which they are overcharged; and the golden grain waves over the fields, where they ſpread out to a wider diſtance. It was Sunday. The peaſants in their beſt attire were making merry in the houſes of public entertainment, ſmoking their pipes, carouſing with wine, and joyouſly ſhouting through the air; 'So lives the jolly Switzer!

As I paſſed the town of Murten,

the coachman checked his horſes, and aſked me, 'would you not chooſe to ſee the remains of our enemies?'—'Where?'—'Here, to the right.'—I ſprang haſtily from the carriage, and through a large iron trelliſing ſaw a heap of human bones.

Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, was one of the moſt powerful princes of his time, and, perſonally, one of the moſt daring and heroic. But his ambition made him the conſtant terror of his neighbours, and a ſcourge to the human race. In the year 1476, he determined to make war on the Swiſs cantons, and to cruſh their proud liberties under the iron ſceptre of tyranny. His army marched. Their banners blazed in the ſky; and the earth groaned under the movements of their engines and artillery. The troops of Burgundy were drawn out in array on the banks of the lake, and Charles looked with envious eyes toward the vales of Switzerland, and already counted them his own. But, at once, the ſignal was given; the alarm pervades all Switzerland: 'The enemy approach'—was the general cry. The peaceful ſhepherds left the cottages and their flocks; ſeized their battle-axes and ſpears: aſſembled thus in arms, and while the love of their country ſwelled their hearts, ruſhed down, like an Alpine torrent, upon thoſe hoſts of foes who menaced the paſſes of their hills. Charles' cannon played. The Swiſs, however, came on, unappalled. The Burgundian ranks were broken. Their cannon were ſilenced. The duke himſelf plunged on horſeback into the lake, and his ſtout courſer conveyed him ſafe to the further ſhore. A few truſty ſervants were the attendants of his flight. He was reſerved to periſh, afterward, by his own hand, when, looking back on the field of carnage out of which he had eſcaped, and beholding the general ſlaughter of his army, he indignantly cried: 'Shalt thou be ſuch a daſtard as to ſurvive their fall?' and with a piſtol put an inſtant end to his own life. The Swiſs afterward gathered up the bones of their ſlaughtered enemies, and depoſited them together in the heap which ſtill remains here.

I ſhuddered at the ſight of ſuch a monument of the errors and the miſerable mortality of men. And you, men of Switzerland! how can you behold, with exultation, ſuch trophies as theſe? The Burgundians! Were not they alſo your brethren of humanity? Why ſhould not the remains of thoſe thirty thouſand unfortunate Burgundians have been watered with your tears, committed with decent ſolemnity to earth, and diſhonoured by no other monument than this, that on a ſimple funereal ſtructure ſhould have been inſcribed, in honour of the conquerors, this brief memorial: 'Here fought the Swiſs for their country: they record their victory, but they mingle tears with their ſongs of triumph!' O had you, men of Switzerland, done thus, then might your glory have been pure, and your triumph fitted to command the ſympathy of every generous heart. But hide! O hide this monument of barbarous ferocity in triumph; and when you boaſt of the proud name of Switzers, remember, there is one yet far more honourable—that of Men!

On the walls ſurrounding this heap of bones, are a variety of inſcriptions. That by Haller is well known:

Helvetian freeman! here the mighty fell—
At whoſe approach Imperial Paris trembled,
And Gallia's monarch ſhrunk behind his throne—
Fell by thy father's hands—
It was not numbers won the gen'rous triumph:
It was not numbers, for the men were few:
Nor artful tactics; nor bright burniſhed weapons,
Nor engines ſtrange, to hew the ranks of war.—
No! it was *patriot-truth* and *brother's faith!*
In theſe, Helvetians, theſe thy fathers conquered.
Live theſe within thy breaſt? Thou art, indeed, their ſon.

Here are alſo thouſands of names and remarks to be ſeen. What guiſes

does not men's ambition of diſtinction capriciouſly aſſume? To what ſtrangely different acts does it not prompt? It bids us ſometimes, thro' perils in every form, explore new worlds; and it moves the traveller to inſcribe his name at this charnel-houſe of the Burgundians.

Behind Murten, are the remains of the ancient Roman city of Aventicum. They conſiſt of broken pillars, dilapidated walls, a ruinous aqueduct, &c. Where is now the pride of this town, which was once the firſt in Helvetia? Where, its inhabitants? Gone! the dominion, the city, its people, all are gone! And we, my friend, ſhall ſoon be as theſe now are! and what earth ſhall then cover us?—But it is night, and the moon gleams on the graves of thoſe whoſe eyes once enjoyed her ſilver light.

It was night when I entered Lauſanne. All were huſhed in ſleep, but the watch, who called the hours. I wiſhed to ſtop at the inn named the Golden Lion. But when I knocked, the anſwer from within was, 'Every room is full, maſter!' I went to another inn, kept at the ſign of the Crown; but here, again, I had only the ſame anſwer as before, 'All full!' Put yourſelf in my place. At night; in the ſtreets; in a ſtrange place; without a ſingle acquaintance; and every door ſhut againſt you. At laſt, the watchman took pity upon me. He knocked at the door of the inn, and aſſured thoſe who anſwered, that 'the gentleman was a traveller of quality.' The reply ſtill was, 'All is full; I wiſh the ſtranger gentleman a good night.' 'Impudent fellow that he is;' ſaid the watchman: 'Come you with me to the Hart; there, I am ſure, we ſhall find admittance.' I followed him to the inn he named. We were received; and I was conducted to a comfortable room. The honeſt watchman, with a ſmile of ſatisfaction on his face, bade me 'good night.' I offered him a trifle of money, which he obſtinately refuſed. I preſſed him with earneſtneſs to accept it, but his honeſt ſpirit ſeemed to be hurt, and he would not. I took my pocket-book, and wrote as follows, mentioning the year, month, and day: 'this day, in Lauſanne, did I find a good man; one, willing to do a kind office to a ſtranger, without fee or reward.'

Next morning I took a walk thro' the town, which I did not much like. It lies partly on the declivity of a hill, partly in a hollow at its baſe; and you have almoſt every moment either to aſcend or to deſcend. The ſtreets are narrow, dirty, and very indifferently paved; but from every part in the town, which is a little elevated in ſituation, one enjoys the nobleſt proſpects imaginable—the bright expanſe of the lake of Geneva; the lofty chain of the mountains of Savoy; the towns and villages ſcattered round the borders of the lake; Morges, Rolle, Nyon. Whatever charms can vary or decorate a ſeries of ſcenery, here fill the gazer's eye. Whenever it ſhall be your fortune, my friend, to viſit Lauſanne, and to climb to the terrace of the cathedral church, remember, that I have been there before you; have there wandered and gazed, and meditated for hours in the feeling of that calm, yet rapturous joy, which the ſurrounding ſcenes are fitted to inſpire!

I had a recommendation to H. Levade, an eminent naturaliſt, and author of various papers in the publications of the Philoſophical Society of Lauſanne. He has a handſome houſe, and a garden laid out in great taſte; among other decorations are a variety of inſcriptions in Latin, French and Engliſh poetry. I obſerved, among theſe inſcriptions, ſome verſes from that beautiful Ode of Thankſgiving by Addiſon; in which the poet gratefully commemorates the principal bleſſings of human life; giving thanks to God in particular, for the poſſeſſion of a ſincerely grateful heart, and for a true and amiable friend. Mr. Levade is fortunate, in no common degree, if he can adopt this part of Addiſon's ſong of praiſe, relatively to his

own ſituation. I laboured a whole night, in an attempt to tranſlate this ode into my native language. The firſt rays of the morning light broke upon my eyes, juſt as I finiſhed theſe laſt lines:

'Through all eternity, to thee
A grateful ſong I'll raiſe,' &c.

This morning proved to be one of the pleaſanteſt of my life. H. Levade carried me to the Literary coffee-houſe, where I found a variety of journals and newſpapers, Engliſh, German, and French. Hither I ſhall often return. Here I can read, and enjoy the day within doors, ſhould it even rain from morn to eve.

Lauſanne is always full of young Engliſhmen, who come hither to learn French and good manners. But their practice and improvements are, very often, quite contrary to the intentions with which they were ſent. I ſhould not adviſe any man to ſend his ſons to Lauſanne. Here they may learn the French language; but hardly any thing elſe that is good. Knowledge of the ſciences, and other branches of uſeful intelligence, will be much more ſucceſsfully ſought at one or other of the German univerſities. Even the young men of Switzerland who are ſincerely ſtudious to improve their minds, go now to Leipſic and Gottingen. In fact, there is no part of the world, where more is to be hoped of a youhg man's education than in Germany. He may deſpair of ever making eminent proficiency in literature, whom a Platner, or a Heyne cannot win to an ingenuous fondneſs for ſtudjous and literary purſuits.

Young ſtrangers pay here at the rate of ſix or ſeven guineas a month for board and education.

Some of our fellow-countrymen have choſen this for a place of permanent reſidence. Among theſe is count Gregory Kyrillowitſch Raſumowſky, a man of learning, celebrated in particular for his ſkill in natural hiſtory. Out of love to ſcience, he has relinquiſhed the purſuit of all thoſe honours and dignities to which his noble birth gave him a right to aſpire; and has retired to a foreign land, where he may, in the moſt eminent manner, enjoy all the beauty and variety of nature, and where there is every advantage for his purſuit of thoſe ſciences and ſtudies in which he delights. Here he lives in undiſturbed retirement; converſes only with nature; and by his diſcoveries and purſuits, reflects the higheſt honour on his native country. He is, if I miſtake not, the firſt native Ruſſian that has become diſtinguiſhed throughout Europe as a man of Science. He left Lauſanne ſome weeks ſince, on a journey to Ruſſia; but his ſpeedy return is expected.

I am juſt returned from hearing, in the cathedral church, a ſermon preached on account of the death of the princeſs Orlow. She died here in the prime of her life, in the arms of an affectionate huſband, whom ſhe has left inconſolable. God never endowed woman with a better heart than hers. Bleſſed be her memory! Over the grave of the ducheſs of Courland ſtands an urn of white marble. That princeſs enjoyed the love and eſteem of all the inhabitants of this place. She loved the charms of rural nature and of poetry; and next after nature, the Britiſh and German muſes were the objects of taſte the deareſt to her heart.

VISIT TO THE SCENES OF ROUSSEAU'S ELOISA.

[From the Same.]

This morning, in a tone of tranquil muſing cheerfulneſs, fitted to riſe to poetical enthuſiaſm, and with Rouſſeau's Eloiſa in my hands, I ſet out at the early hour of five. You already gueſs the purpoſe of my excurſion. Yes, my friend, I went to view with mine own eyes, the

ſcenes where the immortal Rouſſeau has placed the interviews of two of the fondeſt and moſt intereſting lovers, whoſe exiſtence was ever imagined by human fancy. The way from Lauſanne here runs for ſome length between high walls which incloſe the vineyards, and exclude the paſſenger from all proſpect of the adjacent country. Where the walls terminate, there opens to the left a proſpect of Mount Jura, with its various projections, receſſes, and gradations of aſcent, here clothed with the richeſt vines, there exhibiting neſtlike cottages, the ruins of ancient caſtles, or ſolitary towers. To the right, appear beautiful meadows ſkirted with wood; the ſmooth expanſe of the lake of Geneva, and beyond, the gloomy terrific rocks of the Savoy ſhore. By nine o'clock I had reached Vevay, at the diſtance of five French miles from Lauſanne. I ſat me down under the ſhade of a cheſtnut-tree, on the weſt ſide of the town; and thence raiſed my eyes to the ſteep heights of Meilleraie, from which the diſconſolate St. Preux once thought to throw himſelf headlong, and from which alſo he wrote a letter to his Julia.

You know my fondneſs for Rouſſeau. You remember, with what enthuſiaſm we read his Eloiſa together. Judge, then, what were my feelings at the ſight of ſuch a ſcene.

Rouſſeau ſurely owed, to the impreſſion of theſe beautiful ſcenes, the tender, penſive, amorous caſt of his whole ſoul. Why then do not theſe ſcenes produce others like him? I have mentioned, that I gazed on the rocks which had ſuch attractions for St. Preux, and from which he wrote to his Julia. Why does Rouſſeau forbid us here to trace the footſteps of the lovers? Unfeeling man! Firſt to give all the power of reality to the wildeſt but moſt enchanting dream of fancy, and then coldly to tell us, 'there is nothing at all in it!' This is what he does in his Confeſſions. 'I would adviſe,' ſays he, 'any one who poſſeſſes taſte and feeling, to viſit Vevay and its environs, and to contemplate the borders of the lake. He will own ſuch ſcenes to be worthy of Julia and St. Preux. But, in vain would he attempt to trace the lovers there!'

Coxe, the Engliſh traveller, ſuppoſes that Rouſſeau might poſſibly have written his Eloiſa during his reſidence at Meilleraie. But it was not ſo. M. de L. has informed me, from his perſonal knowledge, that Rouſſeau wrote this Romance in the Hermitage, at the diſtance of only four or five miles from Paris.

After reſting, and drinking ſome tea in the inn at Vevay, I went on, along the ſhore of the lake, to ſee another particular ſcene in the romance, namely, the village of Clarens. Lofty trees, thickly clad with leaves, conceal this village from prying eyes till the traveller approaches very near to it. I at laſt deſcried a ſmall village under a hill, overgrown with fir-trees. I diſcovered alſo the reſidence of Julia, ſo finely deſcribed by Rouſſeau, an old turreted caſtle. Its exterior appearance ſufficiently beſpeaks the remoteneſs and barbariſm of the time when it was erected. Many of the inhabitants of Clarens are acquainted with the new Eloiſa, and value themſelves not a little becauſe the great Rouſſeau has made their native village the ſcene of the events of his romance, and thus rendered it one of the moſt famous places in the world. A labouring peaſant of this place, ſeeing a ſtranger contemplate its ſcenes, approached him, and ſimpering, ſaid, 'Have not you read the New Eloiſa, ſir?' A ſimilar incident occurred to myſelf at Luſtwald, where Julia gave her St. Preux the firſt impaſſioned kiſs of love. An old man there enquired, whether I had not read the novel? Behind the village, the waves of the lake are broken on the ſhore, with a hollow noiſe which attempers the ſoul to penſive melancholy.

The ſituation of Vevay, on the bank of one of the fineſt lakes in the world, viewing on the oppoſite ſide the wild terrific rocks of Savoy, and ſurrounded on every other quarter

with rich vineyards, is ſuch as cannot but be, in the utmoſt degree, pleaſing; and were the ſtreets leſs uneven, the town might be preferred to Lauſanne. Here and there are good handſome houſes, and the ſtreets open into ſome fine *places* or ſquares. In Vevay, live the greater number of the noble inhabitants of the French part of Switzerland, or that which is called the Pays de Vaud. Yet it is not very populous.

I fell into company with four other ſtrangers at the inn; and we ſat down together to dinner. In a very few minutes, we were mutually acquainted; and I learned that three of them were Weſtphalian barons, the fourth, a Poliſh prince. The laſt was on his return from France to his native country; and his principal reaſon for paſſing this way was that he might go in pilgrimage to Meilleraie and Clarens. The Pole happened to leave the room; and the others then told me in confidence, that he had joined them only in the morning, and that they were very little pleaſed with his company, as he was perpetually quarrelling with the coachman, the watermen, or the innkeepers, and was, beſides, a great liar. I had very ſoon opportunity to be convinced by my own obſervation of the truth of what they related. We had ſcarcely ſat down to dinner, when he began to quarrel with the landlord about the diſhes on the table. Nothing was to his taſte. The landlord reminded him, that he was not in Warſaw; but the Pole continued to find fault, while there was a diſh upon the table. He then began to tell me of the taking of the Baſtille, at which, he ſaid, he had received ſome muſket-ſhots in his hat and clothes. I had not liſtened to his ſtory long when I began to find myſelf ſleepy, and therefore retired to the bed-chamber which I had requeſted to be mady ready for me.

Ramond, the tranſlator of Coxe's Tour, directs the traveller, in his remarks on that work, to repair to the terrace, which ſurrounds the church in this place; and there, under the dark ſhade of trees which have grown perhaps for centuries, to ſit amid the tombs, and mark the mellowing light of the ſetting ſun, and to obſerve what romantic and picturesque forms the features of this ſcenery ſucceſſively aſſume, as they are by degrees totally loſt under the ſhades of night. I went thither when I had left my company; and continued there in a muſing delightful enthuſiaſm of taſte and ſentiment, till, when I looked around me, heaven and earth were uniformly veiled in the darkneſs of majeſtic night.

On the PRODUCTION *of* OPIUM *from* LETTUCES; *and of the* ANALOGY *of its* EFFECTS *with that produced from* POPPIES. *By the Rev.* Edmund Cartwright, *of* Mary-le-Bone.

[From the Tranſactions of the Society of Arts, &c. Vol. XIX.]

HAVING lately made a diſcovery which I have reaſon to think may in the event lead to conſequences of importance, whether conſidered as an object of ſcience connected with the medical art, or of political economy in influencing an article of commerce, I feel it incumbent upon me to lay it before a ſociety with whoſe views it coincides, and to which, from a variety of perſonal motives, I am zealouſly attached.

Happening, ſome time in the month of Auguſt 1800, to read an account of the proceſs for obtaining opium from poppies, I was led to conſider the very peculiar nature of the ſubſtance which conſtitutes that moſt powerful drug.

On turning over the ſubject in my mind, the different varieties of the lactiferous plants naturally preſented themſelves to my recollection. From the uniformity which nature invariably obſerves in her operations, it ſeemed reaſonable to conclude that the milky

juice would, in regard to its prevailing property, be alike in all the different kinds of plants from which it is to be obtained; though perhaps more or leſs narcotic, and probably more or leſs deleterious, according to the ſpecific quality of the particular plant which might yield it.

There being at that time in my garden a bed of lettuces running to ſeed (in which ſtate they are known to be more particularly lactiferous) I collected a ſmall quantity of the milky juice; and in a day or two, when it was ſufficiently inſpiſſated to admit of taking a ſolid form, I carried it, amounting to about ſix grains, to my friend Dr. George Pearſon, requeſting he would bring its properties, in any way he thought moſt ſatisfactory, to the teſt of experiment. The doctor has ſince favoured me with following letter on the ſubject.

Dear ſir,

According to your requeſt, I have the pleaſure of ſending you an account of the effects of the dried milky juice of lettuce-ſtalks, in the inſtance which fell under my obſervation. This inſtance was John Sheppy, aged nineteen years, who had been ill with what is called chronic rheumatiſm about two months, ſo as to be confined to his chair and bed. He had regularly ſlept every night from about nine to twelve o'clock; but at two o'clock had been uniformly awaked by conſiderable pains of his limbs, eſpecially of the elbows, and paſſed the remainder of the night in a ſleepleſs ſtate.

The ſufferer had taken, for ſeveral nights preceding the exhibition of the dried lettuce juice, a ſcruple in weight of Dover's powder without any relief; and, in place of this medicine, I adminiſtered the ſix grains of dried lettuce juice at nine o'clock. The conſequence was, that in twenty minutes he fell aſleep, and ſlept all night ſoundly till four in the morning, and a great part of the day following. The next night he alſo had but ſlight pain, till the third night, when as uſual the paroxyſm of ſuffering returned at midnight. The day after the taking this medicine, the patient was affected with head-ache, and felt a little numbneſs. He had three evacuations by ſtool the day following.

On the fourth night after the lettuce juice had been given, he ſwallowed one grain of ſolid opium, but without any ſubſequent relief.

On the fifth night *three* grains of ſolid opium were given, but ſtill he had a recurrence of pain at night, and paſſed a reſtleſs night, although not ſo bad as uſual; nor by a repetition of opium could the caſe be effectually relieved. But it was at laſt cured by frictions with mercurial ointment.

The preceding trial, I apprehend, ſhows, as decidedly as a ſingle caſe can do, that the efficacy of dried lettuce juice, as an *anodyne*, is at leaſt equal to the dried poppy juice, commonly called opium, if given in adequate doſes. Yours, &c.

G. Pearson.

If it ſhould be found on ſubſequent trials, that the milky juice of lettuce poſſeſſes, as poſſibly it may do, all the valuable properties of the common opium, lettuces may become an important article of culture for the ſake of their milky juice only. But the cultivation of lettuces has this further advantage over that of poppies:—after having yielded what milky juice can be obtained from them, lettuces afford very wholeſome and nutritious food for cattle, eſpecially hogs, which are known to be remarkably fond of them.

There have not been wanting inſtances, as I have been informed, of lettuces having been ſown purpoſely to be given to hogs, particularly when firſt weaned.

Since writing the above, I find a ſimilar diſcovery has recently been made in America, the particulars of which are detailed in the laſt volume of the Tranſactions of the American Philoſophical Society juſt publiſhed. The experiments that were there tried corroborate the one made by Dr. Pearſon.

An Account of the CULTURE *of* CHICOREE, Chicorium Intybus *of* Linnè, *and Method of manufacturing* COFFEE *from its* ROOT, *as practiſed in* Germany. *By Mr.* John Taylor, *of* Leipſic *.

[From the SAME.]

FOR cultivating the Chicoree plant a ſandy or loamy ſoil anſwers beſt: clay or heavy ſoil is not proper, becauſe the roots cannot penetrate a ſufficient depth, and becauſe in ſuch ground they are more difficult to be pulled up, the roots being uſually half-a-yard in length. The ground muſt be either delved a ſpade or more in depth, or ploughed very deep by two ploughs following each other in the ſame furrow; this work is beſt done in autumn. The land muſt afterward be lightly ploughed at the time of ſowing; but it may be ploughed in like manner in ſpring, if omitted in autumn, then harrowed and immediately ſown. Chicoree does not properly require ſtable manure, becauſe the roots do not taſte ſo well where cattle dung is uſed as in land unmanured. Fallow land, or land on which one crop has been grown, is very proper. If the ground be poor, marl, gypſum, lime, or the mud from ponds, are recommended as manures, or compoſts may be formed from two thirds of loam, and one third of dung for ſandy ſoil; or of two thirds ſand and one third dung for loamy ſoil; by putting the mixture in a heap for ſome months, watering it repeatedly, and turning it with the ſpade ſome weeks before uſed. By adopting this method the Chicoree will be excellent, and the ground greatly improved for future cultivation.

As the roots run deep, the dung, when uſed, ſhould be laid low. Changing the land each year is better for the Chicoree, and alſo for the ground, as by the weeding and working it is in good order for other crops. If the Chicoree be drilled and potatoes grown between the rows, Chicoree may be planted two years together. As potatoes require to be well manured, a crop of corn may then be taken from the land, and Chicoree again planted for one year.

The ſeed of the preceding year ſhould be choſen for ſowing: it ſhould be cleaned from the ſeeds of weeds, and be mixed with aſhes and earth, to enable it to be ſown in ſuch a manner that the roots may ſtand from four to ſix inches aſunder.

Some perſons ſteep the ſeed for twenty-four hours, in a ſolution made from three quarts of dung-liquor, ſix quarts of water, four ounces of common ſalt, and three ounces of ſaltpetre, to three pounds of ſeed; and if that quantity of water be not ſufficient to moiſten it, add more. After the ſeed has been ſteeped therein for eighteen or twenty-four hours, it may be mixed with aſhes and earth as above mentioned, and ſown on ground laid out in large flats previouſly harrowed: after ſowing, it muſt be harrowed with one harrow, in the manner that clover and rape ſeed is covered.

On a Dreſden acre of 300 ſquare perches, of ſomething more than fifteen Engliſh feet each, containing in the whole 67,500 ſquare feet, three pounds and a half to four pounds of ſeed are ſown, according to the goodneſs of the ſeed.

The ſeed may be ſown from the middle of April to the middle of June, ſo that toward autumn the roots may be drawn in ſucceſſion as the land was ſown ſooner or later.

After the ſeed is ſown, nothing

* The manufacture of Chicoree root, as a ſubſtitute for coffee, has lately extended rapidly over the continent; and as this article furniſhes a conſiderable part of the nutriment of many thouſand perſons in Germany, Mr. John Taylor, from perſonal obſervation and minute inquiries, has furniſhed this account of its culture, preparation, and uſe, which it is hoped will contribute to the comforts of great numbers of the inhabitants of this country.

more is required than to keep it clear from weeds, and either to draw out the thickeſt plants in Auguſt for uſe, to allow more room for the ſmaller ones, or to pluck out the ſmaller plants, which is the better way, as it will occaſion the larger ones to increaſe until September and October, when they may be dug up to advantage.

The roots, when taken up, muſt be ſeparated from the ſtalks, leaves, and fibres, which are commonly uſed for feeding cattle; the Chicoree coffee manufacturers pay from 3s to 4s per cwt. for ſuch green roots.

Thoſe who wiſh to raiſe ſeed for themſelves on a ſmall ſcale, muſt preſerve ſome of the ſtrongeſt roots in a hole in the earth during the winter, and plant them out in the ſpring: but thoſe who grow the plants in quantities may reſerve a plot of the beſt plants for that purpoſe; remembering to pluck out any bad plants from among them, as the beſt ſeed is only produced from good plants.

The ſeed muſt be gathered when the greateſt part is ripe, by cutting off the ſtalk and placing it upright for ſome days in the ſun, binding the top round with a little ſtraw to guard the ſeed from the birds, and to allow it to ripen more perfectly. It is then beat or thraſhed out, according as the quantity.

Additional Obſervations on the Culture and Preparation of Chicoree.

The plants flouriſh beſt when they have been thinly ſown and remain in ſuch ſtate; but where any vacancies occur, thoſe may be filled up with tranſplanted roots, placed from four to ſix inches aſunder. When the roots are taken up in the autumn, they are firſt waſhed, and then cut by a machine into thin ſlices; afterward dried partly in the air, and the drying completed on a malt-kiln. They are then laid aſide till roaſted: when roaſted, they will keep for a year or two in a dry place.

Such roots are beſt whoſe thickneſſes are from one to two inches; if thicker, they are too coarſe; and if thinner, have but little taſte. In general the leaves are cut off, and uſed as food for cattle, ſome weeks previous to the roots being plucked up. Some perſons ſtrip the leaves ſeveral times during the ſummer, but then there is leſs produce of the roots.

The roots, when drawn and waſhed, ſhould be ſliced by the hand, or by a machine: they ſhould then be thinly laid upon hurdles in an airy room, and often turned, to prevent them from rotting, and to aſſiſt the air in drying them before they are carried to the malt-kiln. If the quantity is ſmall, they may be dried by the common ſtoves of the room. No more roots ſhould be dug up at once than can be waſhed and ſliced on the ſame day, if poſſible.

Manufacture of the Coffee from dried Chicoree Roots.

The dried roots are roaſted in iron coffee-drums, containing from half a buſhel to one buſhel each; theſe drums are placed within brick furnaces, in which a ſpace of half a foot is left between the brick-work and the drum, on every ſide, ſo that the heat may be equally divided: within the drum are thin bars of iron, running lengthwiſe, to ſhake or divide the roots while roaſting; during which operation the drum is conſtantly kept turning by a handle placed on its axis. The criterion of the roots being properly roaſted, is, that they are not too dark as if burnt, nor too light-coloured for want of ſufficient roaſting: the large and ſmall ſlices ſhould be roaſted ſeparately.

After this operation the roots are ground in the manner of flour, in ſimilar mills, and the fine reſerved for uſe; but the coarſer part is again returned to the mill, to be finer ground: it is then packed in caſks, or put up in paper bags, as may be thought neceſſary, and preſerved dry.

This powder is the coffee, and may be prepared alone, as common coffee-berries, when ground for uſe: or it may be mixed with one quarter or one

half of its weight of genuine Weſt India or Turkey coffee, at diſcretion. The price at which it is ſold, is uſually from five-pence to eight-pence per pound. Raw coffee-berries, mixed with the root while roaſting, improve its odour and quality.

Large manufactures of the Chicoree coffee are eſtabliſhed, with conſiderable profit to the proprietors, at Berlin, Magdeburg, Brunſwick, Dreſden, and other parts of the continent.

The article is become in general demand and uſe throughout Germany, as a pleaſant and wholeſome nouriſhment, in place of Weſt India coffee, which formed a conſiderable part of the diet of the inhabitants.

ANECDOTE *reſpecting the Intimacy of King* GEORGE *the* FIRST *with the Family of* HENRY ST. JOHN, *Lord* BOLINGBROKE.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

THE following anecdote, which I extract from one of the printed letters of lady Luxborough, ſiſter of the famous lord Bolingbroke, to William Shenſtone, eſq. may probably be not unacceptable to you, and your readers, for theſe two reaſons,

It is generally known, that about the time of the death of king George the firſt, a rumour prevailed here in England, that if he had lived to return from Germany, he would have diſmiſſed ſir Robert Walpole, and would have made lord Bolingbroke his firſt miniſter. Even the late lord Orford, in his 'Reminiſcences,' though he wiſhed to diſcredit that rumour, could not deny but it might have ſome foundation in truth. But we were ſtill without ſuch a knowledge of circumſtances as might countenance it with any very plauſible ſhow of probability. Yet an anecdote evincing a familiar intimacy to have ſubſiſted between that monarch and the St. John family, is preciſely one of thoſe which we ſhould deſire to know, to illuſtrate the credibility of the tale.

My other reaſon for expecting this anecdote to intereſt others, as it has intereſted me, is, that it furniſhes a fine example of a general fact, in the hiſtory of the appetites and paſſions of human nature. The general fact I mean is, that total abſtinence from any particular enjoyment is often eaſier than moderation in the actual uſe of it. Of the late Dr. Johnſon, we are informed by the writer of his Memorabilia, that he could, and often did, pioufly abſtain from wine and good eating; but was leſs able, when he indulged at all, to indulge in either the one, or the other, with ſober, patient moderation. And it ſhould ſeem by what follows, that between Johnſon and king George the firſt, there was at leaſt one point of reſemblance.

'The late king George,' wrote lady Luxborough to Mr. Shenſtone, in the year 1748, 'was fond of peaches ſtewed in brandy in a particular manner, which he had taſted at my fathers. And ever after, till his death, my mamma furniſhed him with a ſufficient quantity to laſt the year round, he eating *two* every night. This little preſent he took kindly. But one ſeaſon proved fatal to fruit-trees; and ſhe could preſent his majeſty with but half the uſual quantity, deſiring him to uſe economy, for they would barely ſerve him the year at *one* each night. Being thus forced by neceſſity to retrench, he ſaid, he would then eat *two* every other night; and valued himſelf upon having mortified himſelf leſs than if he had yielded to their regulation of *one* each night; which, I ſuppoſe, may be called a compromiſe between economy and epicuriſm; but I leave it to your deciſion.'

Of the truth of this curious anecdote we cannot doubt. While Walpole, as his ſon has informed us, plied the king with punch, the St. Johns pampered him with brandy-peaches.

Yours, &c. G. W. J——.

HISTORY *of* ASTRONOMY *for the* YEAR 1801.

Concluded from Page 270.

M. BODE, of Berlin, has publiſhed the laſt part of his large Celeſtial Atlas in twenty ſheets, which contains all the old conſtellations, with ſeveral new ones, and ſome thouſands of ſtars, with which I furniſhed him; an immenſe labour, of which the aſtronomers had need. This beautiful work may be procured at the college de France.

On the 27th of September, the Helvetic republic adopted the French meaſures. This is the firſt of the European ſtates which has been ſenſible of the importance of this univerſal meaſure to the general good of civilized nations.

Guglielmini, of Bologna, has made three new experiments on the fall of bodies, to prove the rotation of the earth: he has found the ſame deviation from the ſouth within a line, though it is not given by theory; but the deviation from the weſt he has found as it ought to be. Preparations are making for obſervations of the ſame kind at Hamburgh from the tower of St. Michael, at the height of 326 feet.

The obſervatory of Cadiz, during ſeveral years, has furniſhed us with a ſeries of important obſervations; but for ſome time it has been neglected. General Mazaredo has cauſed a new one to be built in the Iſle-de-Leon, and he has attached to it four aſtronomers, officers in the navy—Rodrigo Armeſto, Maximo-Lariva Aguero, Julian Canela, and Joſeph Cueſta, who have reſided there four years. For ten years paſt, a nautical almanac has been publiſhed in Spain. I hope navigation and aſtronomy will be benefited by it. The teleſcope twenty-five feet in length, made by Dr. Herſchel for Spain, will be ſent off in the month of January; and Dupont will go to Spain to mount it.

M. Travaſſos, ſecretary of the academy of Liſbon, has ſent me obſervations by M. Ciera, which have confirmed the longitude of that city; the Nautical Ephemerides publiſhed to 1803, and various works of the Portugueſe academy, of which we had no idea, and which the national inſtitute of France received with much intereſt. This negociation was conducted by the chevalier d'Aranjo.

Aſtronomy was long in a languiſhing condition in the Batavian republic: M. Fokker has eſtabliſhed, at his own expences, an obſervatory at Middleburg; he has purchaſed inſtruments, and ſent us ſeveral obſervations made between 1797 and 1801. M. Fokker, during the revolution of 1795, was member of the committee of public ſafety, and at that time obtained a tower in the abbey; but the revolution of the 12th of June 1796, interrupted his plans for the improvement of the obſervatory. He is now engaged in the finance department of Zealand; but his ſpare time is employed on aſtronomy, and he has ſent me ſeveral intereſting obſervations.

In Germany aſtronomy continues to be cultivated with great aſſiduity. Baron von Zach's tour to Bremen and Lilienthal has produced new activity; and the ſociety formed for the purpoſe of ſearching the heavens are ſtill occupied with that object. He obſerves the moon with great diligence; and gives me reaſon to hope, that I ſhall ſee next ſummer a part of the German aſtronomers aſſemble in an aſtronomical congreſs at Gotha, as was the caſe in 1798. Amid the horrors of war, the French aſtronomers ſignalized their zeal for aſtronomy. General Moreau, being at Cremſmunſter, where there is a celebrated obſervatory, cauſed a bill to be poſted up denouncing the puniſhment of death againſt every perſon who ſhould be guilty there of any depredation; and neither the obſervatory nor the convent of the Benedictines ſuſtained any

injury. It is flattering to the French to have officers who diſtinguiſh themſelves by a taſte for the ſciences. It will no longer be ſaid that military men, in conſequence of their ſituation, are ignorant and ferocious.

The academy of Peterſburgh has requeſted an obſerver, but Burg and Wurm, have been retained by their ſovereigns; and this beautiful obſervatory is ſtill uſeleſs, notwithſtanding the number of excellent inſtruments with which it is furniſhed.

C. Henry has had the ſatisfaction of erecting the large mural quadrant by Bird, and of making ſome obſervations with it.

The irregularity in the degrees of the earth hitherto meaſured, gave reaſon to ſuſpect ſome error in that of Lapland meaſured in 1736. M. Melanderhielm, therefore, has obtained permiſſion from the king of Sweden to undertake a new meaſurement. In the month of April, meſſrs. Oſverbom and Swamberg ſet out for Tornea, where they erected ſignals and built ſmall obſervatories. When the ice on the river is thawed, they will meaſure a baſe with the rules ſent them by the Inſtitute. A multiplying circle, made at Paris, by Lenoir, will ſerve them in the ſpring for meaſuring the angles; and next ſummer we ſhall have the ſolution of this old difficulty.

M. de Mendoza, a Spaniſh officer, has publiſhed two large collections of tables; one at Madrid, in 1800, entitled 'Colleccion de Tablas;' and another at London, in the month of April 1801, which contains tables for the reduction of diſtances by the addition of five natural numbers: he has made a new uſe of the verſed ſines, which renders numerical operations ſhorter and eaſier. Theſe tables conſiſt of 407 pages quarto.

Mr. Garrard has publiſhed tables in thirteen pages only; but his method is neither ſhorter nor ſo accurate.

Mr. Vince, an able Engliſh aſtronomer, has publiſhed the ſecond volume of a large treatiſe on aſtronomy.

The ſtereotype tables of logarithms, publiſhed by Firmin Didot in 1795, have been again corrected. M. Vega, who has cauſed to be printed in Germany the largeſt collection extant, has verified the French tables, and ſent us ſeveral faults, which are going to be corrected: in all probability they will be the laſt, and we may depend in future on correct tables. This is a great benefit for calculators, who have ſometimes loſt whole days in reviſing calculations, which did not agree, in conſequence of an erroneous figure.

But as the ſmall manual tables are moſt frequently employed, I have cauſed them to be printed in ſtereotype: ſeveral perſons have corrected them; and in three months I can give all calculators the moſt correct, moſt convenient, and moſt elegant edition that has ever appeared.

C. Verniquet has finiſhed the engraving of his large plan of Paris, in ſeventy two ſheets on a ſcale of half a line to the toiſe, which in correctneſs ſurpaſſes every thing of the kind.

A project was long ago formed and undertaken for making a lunar globe repreſenting all the mountains and craters. Mr. Ruſſel has accompliſhed this object in England: his lunar globe, mounted on an ingenious ſtand, expreſſes all the circumſtances of the moon's libration, and ſhows that body as ſhe ought to appear in the different poſitions of the earth and moon, as well as the variations of the equator and orbit.

M. Philippides, born at Mount Pelion in Theſſaly, who attended the courſe of aſtronomy at the College de France in 1794, and who is now at Jaſſi with the hoſpodar of Moldava, propoſes to publiſh in Greek the Abridgement of my Aſtronomy: he has already publiſhed various works, for the purpoſe of endeavouring to propagate inſtruction in his country.

Three-fourths of the two laſt volumes of Montucla's Hiſtory of the Mathematics are printed. This work will contain the hiſtory of aſtronomy, optics, and navigation; to which I have been obliged to make great additions in conſequence of the too premature death of the learned author.

M. Von Murr, of Nuremberg, who has manuſcrips of Regiomontanus, the firſt reſtorer of aſtronomy before 1500, has cauſed a page to be engraven, an exact fac-ſimile of the character of the manuſcript: he offers to ſell theſe manuſcripts for 2400 francs; they would be a treaſure to a large library.

The aſtronomical poems of Ricard, Lemiere, and Fontanes, had before ſhown how far a view of the heavens is capable of exciting poetical enthuſiaſm. C. Gudin has again proved it by a poem, which contains both the hiſtory of aſtronomy and a deſcription of the heavens, and which diſplays as much correctneſs as elegance.

This year geography alſo has made conſiderable progreſs. Tranchot is conſtructing a map of the four united departments on the ſcale of a line to 100 toiſes: a ſurvey is taking of the country between the Adige and the Adda, Piedmont, Swabia, and Switſerland; and the miniſter at war cauſed the details to be inſerted in the Moniteur of Auguſt 14.

C. Henry, who has been invited to Munich to conſtruct the map of Bavaria, informs me in a letter that the topographical part is in great forwardneſs; a baſe of 21,649 metres or 11,108 toiſes has been meaſured: it is the longeſt ever meaſured. The large triangles around the capital are already in part cloſed. There are ſome the ſides of which will be from fifteen to twenty leagues, and even more. He has already ſwept the horizon ſeveral times with his circle, and with aſtoniſhing preciſion. The laſt ſweep was compoſed of ſix angles; the ſum of which when reduced was not in exceſs, but 8-10ths of a ſecond in 360 degrees; and yet the circle he uſed was not very good. To make up as much as poſſible for what may be wanting in regard to preciſion, he multiplies his obſervations: he never makes leſs than fifteen conjugate obſervations, and he often carries the number to twenty. The triangles which Caſſini aſſumed in the neighbourhood of Munich are badly choſen, and the meaſurement of them is very incorrect. Without employing his triangles, Henry has already diſpoſed a ſeries of fourteen triangles, the meaſure of which will give us that of an arc of the meridian of ſomewhat more than a degree: he hopes that it will ſtill be poſſible to prolong this arc, which will paſs at a little diſtance from Ingoldſtadt, and which will aſcertain the poſitions of a part of Germany. The travels of baron Von Zach and ſeveral of his co-operators have alſo ſupplied us with new information and new poſitions, which will improve the geography of Germany. Colonel le Cocq continues his map of Weſtphalia.

Baron Von Ende, member of the ſupreme council of appeal at Cette, has publiſhed a volume on the determination of ſeveral places in Lower Saxony: it is filled with obſervations and calculations

The geography of diſtant countries has aſſumed alſo a new activity. Captain Baudin, whoſe voyage of diſcovery I before announced, left the Canaries on the 24th of November, and the Iſle of France on the 22d of March. We have reaſon to hope that he has already made intereſting diſcoveries in New Holland; the only country of the earth which is almoſt unknown to us, though it is 2000 leagues in circumference. Bernier, the aſtronomer who accompanies him on the expedition, a man of intelligence and courage, leaves nothing to be wiſhed for on that head. In the month of June, the French government granted paſſports to the Engliſh veſſels, the Inveſtigator, captain Flinders, on the point of proceeding on a

voyage of diſcovery to the South Sea, and to the Lady Nelſon, commanded by lieutenant Grant, who is to accompany the Inveſtigator, in exploring the coaſt of New Wales.

C. Deguignes jun. arrived from China, where he reſided from 1784 to 1797, will, in all probability, when he publiſhes the journal of his voyage, give us ſome information reſpecting that beautiful part of the world.

Baron Humboldt, an enlightened and intrepid philoſopher, has gone to South America, where he has travelled 1300 leagues in the deſerts, with great labour and amid terrible dangers, to make us acquainted with the geography and natural hiſtory of thoſe countries which are ſtill new to us.

M. Deferrer has ſent me obſervations which give the poſition of Natchetz in Louiſiana, and of Guaira in South America; for the former, lat. 31° 33′ 48″, difference of meridian 6h 15′ 21″; and for the latter 10° 36′ 40″ N and 4h 37′ 11″.

C. Nouet has ſent us from Egypt an almanac calculated for that country, and ſeveral poſitions of cities even in Upper Egypt, notwithſtanding the climate, the dangers, and inconceivable labour which ſuch obſervations require. The value of the degree is 56,880 toiſes; the Egyptian ſtadium 711 feet; the Egyptian cubit 21·33 inches; the Greek ſtadium 487·543 feet, and the cubit 19·5017 inches. In a word, he has arrived himſelf, and brought us the continuation of his labours, accompanied with young Iſaac Mechain, the ſon of one of our moſt celebrated aſtronomers, who was his companion and co-operator in Egypt. C. Fourrier has brought us drawings of the zodiacs of Upper Egypt, which atteſt the high antiquity of aſtronomy; and he proves that the formation of the conſtellations goes back 14 000 years, as Dupuis preſumed.

C. Marquis, præfect of La Meurthe, has ſent to the Board of Longitude, obſervations and manuſcripts of P. Barlet, a jeſuit of Nancy, which contain intereſting things.

I muſt here ſay a word of meteorology. C. Lamarc has publiſhed a meteorological journal, in which he gives a great many obſervations, and indicates the variations of the ſeaſons which may be ſuppoſed to take place in the courſe of the year. The miniſter of the Interior has eſtabliſhed a meteorological correſpondence to multiply obſervations; and Lamarc, who ſolicited this eſtabliſhment, will make it advantageous to the ſcience, which is ſtill in its infancy.

C. Buckhardt, alſo, has written a long and curious work on meteorology. He has examined 50,000 obſervations of the barometer, that he may be able to calculate the influence of the winds; and he has found that the ſouth wind gives for mean height 27 inches 11·3 lines, while the eaſt gives 28 inches 1·9 line. He has found alſo that the height on the borders of the Mediterranean ſea is 28 inches 2·2 lines, and on thoſe of the ocean 28 inches 2·8 lines.

Well placed weather-cocks are very rare at Paris. There is none at the obſervatory, though I requeſted one on being appointed director; and I have thanked, in name of all obſervers, C. Bois, tinman, who having built a houſe on the Quai des Auguſtins, has erected there a lofty and very moveable weather-cock, with letters indicating the four cardinal points, which will be on a line with a meridian I have traced out on the quay. Aſtronomers, when they go to the Inſtitute or the Board of Longitude, will have an opportunity of ſeeing conveniently the direction of the wind; and the ſame advantage will be enjoyed by the inhabitants of that vaſt quay, of the Louvre, and the ſurrounding houſes, which had not a ſingle weather-cock in their view, but a great many conductors, which are not very intereſting.

On the 3d of November, there was in the Baltic a terrible ſtorm, which deſtroyed ſome veſſels, and was felt

even at Breſt. On the 7th, there was a ſtorm in Provence, which produced 73 lines of water in 2½ hours by a wind at SSE. It did very great damage at Marſeilles; ſeveral perſons periſhed in the neighbourhood, and the loſs amounts to ſome millions. C. Thulis has found ſome memorandums of the ſtorms of July 12, 1748; September 4, 1764; and September 15, 1772: but no perſon had any remembrance of a ſtorm like that of the preſent year. The plain of the Po was expoſed to an immenſe inundation.

The claſs of the Phyſical and Mathematical Sciences on the 16th of April, choſe three aſtronomers, who were preſented to the general aſſembly for the place of aſſociate, vacant by the death of C. St. Jacques, viz. C. Vidal, Sepmanville, and Bernard.

The firſt is an uncommon obſerver, who has alone made more obſervations of Mercury than all the aſtronomers of the world ſince 2000 years. The ſection of aſtronomy had preſented alſo C. Pictet of Geneva, Chabrol (de Riom) and Quenot, officers in the navy. I even made out a liſt of the aſtronomers known in France, which contained C. Henry, returned from Peterſburgh; Nouet and Beauchamp, returned from the Levant; C. Deratte and Poitevin of Montpellier; Bernier and Biſſy, who embarked with captain Baudin; Chevalier, in the department of foreign affairs; Kramp, of Cologne; Duvaucel, at Evreux; Guerin, at Amboiſe; Mongin, at La Grand-Combe-des-Bois; Maingon and Lancelin, at Breſt; Jacotot, at Dijon; Planpain and Degrand, at Marſeilles. If we add to theſe the ſix aſtronomers aſſociated at the Inſtitute, it will be ſeen that this ſcience, the moſt unprofitable and the moſt neglected, ſtill furniſhes ſubjects in France. As ſoon as the happy event of peace exalted the hopes of literary men, I took advantage of it to ſolicit from all quarters, that aſtronomy might participate in the benefits of it.

The academy of Peterſburgh has tranſmitted to me a ſmall preſent, which it has been accuſtomed for thirty years to ſend me for the good of aſtronomy; and the emperor of Ruſſia has approved the deſire of the academy in that reſpect.

The king of Etruria has promiſed to patronize aſtronomy at Florence. The obſervatory is already provided with excellent inſtruments, and Fabroni has aſſured me that an obſerver will be placed in it: he has requeſted one of my pupils; and this circumſtance makes me regret that I have not a greater number.

General Jourdan gives me reaſon to hope that the obſervatory of Turin will be put in a proper ſtate; and C. Vaſſalli, preſident of the academy, affords me hopes alſo.

The miniſter of the marine has given orders that new obſervations ſhall be made at Breſt on the tides, according to my requeſt, in order to complete my *Traité du Flux et du Reflux de la Mer*, which I wrote to confirm the excellent theory of Laplace in his *Mechanique Céleſte*, and to aſcertain what influence the wind has on the tides.

We requeſted the firſt conſul to procure us from Spain two thouſand pounds weight of platina, to conſtruct a teleſcope of thirty-ſix feet; and we have reaſon to hope for it. Our teleſcope will, perhaps, ſurpaſs that of Herſchel.

The obſervatory of Paris has acquired C. Agouſtene. The miniſter of the Interior, C. Chaptal, has agreed that the Board of Longitude may increaſe its expences for this new aſſiſtant; and I have obtained C. Giroult, whoſe youth and aſſiduity give me new aid, and leave me no other regret than that of not being able to procure a greater number.

In my Hiſtory of Aſtronomy for 1800, I mentioned the loſs which aſtronomy had ſuſtained on the 5th of November that year, by the death of Ramſden: to him we have been indebted, during the courſe of twenty years, for the beſt and largeſt inſtru-

ments, the moſt perfect teleſcopes, and the moſt ingenious ideas. Troughton, at preſent, is the moſt celebrated artiſt in England, and is preparing to indemnify us for this loſs. He has already made excellent inſtruments; and C. Pictet, of Geneva, lately brought us ſome of them.

On the 10th of February, we loſt C. St. Jacques de Sylvabelle, director of the obſervatory of Marſeilles, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf by theoretical reſearches in 1753, as may be ſeen in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, and then by uſeful obſervations: he was ſeventy-nine years of age, and was ſtill uſefully employed. His eulogy will appear in the journal of the Lycæum of his department.

He has been ſucceeded by Thulis, who has long been aſſiſtant director of the obſervatory. The latter made proſelytes and pupils C. Planpain and C. Degrand; but they have both left us, to the great loſs of aſtronomy.

In the month of December 1800, Matteucci died at Bologna: to him we are indebted for the laſt volumes of the Ephemerides of Bologna, which go as far as 1810. He has been ſucceeded by C. Ciccolini and Guglielmini, who promiſe new activity in the obſervatory, which Manfredi, Zanotti, and Matteucci, have rendered intereſting for a century paſt.

Chaligni died lately at Madrid: he had long made obſervations and calculations, by which he has been known with advantage as an aſtronomer.

M. Chevalier has died at Prague: he made uſeful obſervations at Liſbon in 1759, and at Bruſſels.

On the 8th of October, Gabriel de Bory died at Paris, aged 81: he undertook a journey to Spain in 1751, and in 1758, went to Portugal and Madeira to determine their poſition. His obſervations are in the Memoires of 1768, p. 270, and in thoſe of 1772, part ii. In the Memoires of 1770, he gave a deſcription of a portable obſervatory, and in the third volume of the *Savans Etrangers* an obſervation of the tranſit of Mercury in 1753. In 1751, he publiſhed a deſcription of a marine octant: he diffuſed a taſte for obſervations through the royal navy: being *chef d' eſcadre* and governor of the windward iſlands, he had means of contributing to excite emulation, and he always employed them. In 1765, he was therefore elected a free aſſociate of the Academy of Sciences, and in 1798, member of the Inſtitute.

The Academy and Inſtitute have always been ſenſible how much need we have of enlightened fellow-labourers to improve our knowledge of navigation, the moſt difficult of all arts, and the moſt important of all ſciences for the proſperity and greatneſs of ſtates.

But the greateſt loſs ſuſtained by aſtronomy is that of Joſeph Beauchamp. He was born at Vezoul, on the 29th of June 1752. His obſervations at Bagdad in Perſia, and on the Black ſea, were as laborious to him as they were important to us. He ſet out in 1795, as French conſul for Maſcate in Arabia; and he wrote to me on his departure as follows: 'Remember my attachment to you and to aſtronomy.' He left indeed, with ſome regret, a country and family who were dear to him: he is certainly one of the martyrs to aſtronomy. He ſet out for Conſtantinople on the 25th of September; we expected him with the greateſt impatience, but he had ſcarcely arrived in Provence when he fell a prey to a malady of which he had not been properly cured. He died at Nice on the 19th of November 1801. Eight days before his death the ſection of aſtronomy had preſented him to the vacant place in the Inſtitute. I publiſhed a notice of his labours in the Moniteur of Dec. 15, 1801.

Hiſtory of CLOCK *and* WATCH-MAKING, *both* THEORETICAL *and* PRACTICAL, *ſince the earlieſt Method of dividing the Day to the End of the Eighteenth Century.*

[By I. H. MORIZ POPPE.]

THE author of this work having publiſhed, in 1797, An Eſſay toward a Hiſtory of the Origin and Progreſs of Clock and Watch-making; it met with ſuch a favourable reception, that he has ſince been induced to improve and enlarge it. He acknowledges the obligations he is under to profeſſors Kaſtner and Beckmann, who aſſiſted him with their advice and information; and who, on account of their learning and extenſive reading, were able to ſupply him with much uſeful information. The whole work is divided into ten chapters.

I. *The oldeſt Method of dividing the Day, and the Invention of Sun-dials.*

THE period when ſun-dials were invented is as little known as the country where, and the perſon by whom. The author, however, has collected from the oldeſt authors what is to be found on the ſubject, and examined it with critical accuracy. The earlieſt account of inſtruments deſtined to mark the lapſe of time by the ſun's ſhadow is to be found in the Bible and in Homer. A ſun dial conſtructed according to the deſcription of Vitruvius was found in the year 1741, among the ruins of a villa on the Tuſculan hill at Rome. A ſun-dial of the ſame kind is ſtill to be ſeen at Athens, ſtanding on the ſummit of a rock, to the right of an edifice built by Thraſyllus.

II. *Uſe of Sun-dials, and the Diviſion of the Day into Hours, among different ancient Nations; gradual Improvement of the Art of conſtructing and uſing them to the preſent Period.*

THE Indians, Siameſe, Tartars, Perſians, Chaldeans, Egyptians, and Chineſe divided the day into ſixty hours, and each hour into ſixty minutes, &c. Theſe people even employed a gnomon for the purpoſe of placing their temples according to the principal quarters of the globe. We know from hiſtory that the Chineſe made uſe of gnomons twelve or fifteen centuries perhaps before the birth of Chriſt. The old geographers, by examining the length of the ſhadows of gnomons of equal height, determined the latitude of places, and the obliquity of the ecliptic. Beroſus brought to Greece from Aſia the diviſion of the day into twelve hours; and the firſt ſun-dial. Anaximander, about ſix centuries before Chriſt, made an improvement in ſun-dials, as did alſo Anaximenes. Eudoxus, four centuries before Chriſt, conſtructed a ſtill more perfect ſun-dial, under the name of *arachne*. Apollonius of Perga, about a century before Chriſt, invented the *pharetra*. Patrocles found out the *pelekinon*, Dionyſiodorus the ſun-dial in the form of a cone, Cleanthes the hemiſphere or *ſcapha*, Parmenio the *proſtaſiſorumena*, Theodoſius and Andreas the *proſpanklima*. Vitruvius makes mention of three other ſun-dials; *gonarcha*, *engenaton*, and *antiboreum*, without deſcribing them or naming the inventors. The author deſcribes all theſe ſun-dials with as much preciſion as the accounts of them remaining will allow, and with literary and technical accuracy. There were public ſun-dials both at Athens and Sparta. Eratoſthenes and Archimedes employed dials very accurately divided for aſtronomical purpoſes; and all the cities of Greece of any conſideration ſoon had public inſtruments of this kind. Ring-dials ſoon began alſo to be uſed. A dial of this kind was ſuſpended in the large ſhip of Hiero; but the Grecian navigators, for meaſuring the ſtate of the ſun, the time

of the day, and the ſtars above the horizon, employed rather the hodometer deſcribed by Vitruvius, which ſeems to have furniſhed the firſt hint for our meaſurers of time, conſtructed with wheel-work. It was very late before the Romans had real ſun-dials. They employed in their ſtead obeliſks, to which good gnomons were applied. The largeſt of all the gnomons of modern times was that of Ulug Beigh, erected at Conſtantinople in the 15th century, which was 183 feet in height. The Bononian obeliſk, 83 feet high, erected by Caſſini, that of Paris, and the one which pope Clement XI, cauſed to be conſtructed, are alſo celebrated. In the ancient gnomons, the hours were indicated by the ſhadow of a ſtyle; in the modern ones the ſame thing is done by the ſun's rays paſſing through a hole. The Greeks and Romans employed perſons of both ſexes to announce to them the hours, as indicated by the public gnomons. Trimalchio cauſed the hours to be announced to him by a trumpeter. This was afterward cuſtomary at the temples. It is not known, however, when portable ſun-dials came into uſe. Some of theſe inſtruments, after being buried more than 1500 years, were found between 1730 and 1740 in the territories of Rome: of theſe remains of antiquity the author gives a deſcription. That Purbach, an aſtronomer of Vienna, introduced ſun-dials into Germany, about 300 years ago is not probable, as the Germans, no doubt, obtained them by their intercourſe with the Romans. In the 16th century, artiſts took great pains to conſtruct ſun-dials in a great many ingenious ways; about the ſame period lunar and aſtral dials were invented. There is a ſun-dial at Beſançon which is ſeen only when the ſun ſhines. This is alſo deſcribed, as well as the dial below the roof of the council-houſe at Ingoldſtadt. Another at Alençon, ſtill more ingenious, is connected with wheel-work, and indicates true and mean time. In the muſeum at Göttingen, there is a collection of ſun-dials, and other works of art of a ſimilar kind, preſerved in a box.

III. *Oldeſt Method of dividing the Night. Invention of Water-clocks and Sand-glaſſes, and the progreſſive Improvement of them to the preſent Time.*

THE circumſtance of ſun-dials being of no uſe in the night-time, and during cloudy weather, gave occaſion to the invention and improvement of water-clocks; traces of which may be found among the oldeſt nations, the Chaldeans and Egyptians. They were in uſe alſo at an early period among the Chineſe. They were employed by the Egyptian aſtronomers for meaſuring the diameter of the ſun. In their firſt ſtate they were called *clepſydræ*, becauſe the water iſſued from them drop by drop. The defect, in regard to the inequality in the efflux was at firſt remedied by the ſmall ſtick of the Indians having a hole bored in it, and which floats ſome time on the water, but which after a certain period, diſcovered by repeated trial, becomes immerſed. It was afterward contrived to keep the water-clock always full, by ſuffering the ſame quantity of water to run in as that which flowed out, that equal portions of time might be indicated by an equal fall. A funnel or inverted pyramid was then employed, in which the water deſcended in unequal parts, but through equal degrees marked out on a ſcale. In the courſe of time the knowledge of aſtronomy was applied to theſe clocks, and ſome were conſtructed in a very ingenious manner: of this kind was the *anaphoricum*, which the author deſcribes; alſo the retrograding clock, and winter water-clock. Plato brought the firſt water-clock to Greece. The firſt that ever appeared at Rome, was ſhown by Scipio Naſica, about the year 157 before Chriſt: but ſoon after theſe clocks were common, not only at Rome, but in other towns of the Roman empire. When Julius Ceſar in-

vaded Britain, he found that the inhabitants had water-clocks. In general they were more prized than ſun-dials. Athenæus conſtructed a clock which indicated the hours by the hiſſing noiſe of the air forced through a narrow hole by the preſſure of water. Together with public ſun-dials, public water-clocks were alſo ſoon introduced. Theſe were eſtabliſhed even in the palaces of the great. That the hours as announced by theſe water-clocks may be more eaſily made known to the public, the Turks have criers poſted on high towers—and the Chineſe, perſons who ſtrike on large bells. The Japaneſe employ burning matches to indicate the time, and announce the hours in the ſame manner as the Chineſe. The uſe which Hipparchus and Ptolemy made of water-clocks contributed to their improvement: they were much improved by Hero, but during the next ſeven centuries nothing was done in this reſpect. The clocks of Boethius, that which Harun al Raſchid ſent as a preſent to Charlemagne, and that of the philoſopher Leo of Conſtantinople, were much celebrated, though the invention of clocks with wheel work rendered water-clocks unneceſſary. The latter, however, continued ſome time after in uſe; and about the year 1660, water-clocks in the form of a drum, which are thoſe called properly at preſent water-clocks, were invented it is probable in Italy, but rather for curioſity than for real uſe. The obſervation that the water ſoon evaporated, may have given occaſion to ſand being uſed in ſuch clocks inſtead of water. The period when this change was made is not known. There is reaſon only to conjecture that the Egyptians and Chaldeans had hour glaſſes. In the Monachal Laws the word *klepſammedia* occurs only in writings of the eighth century; and it was not till a much later period that attempts were made to conſtruct hour-glaſſes in an elegant and ingenious manner. Many of them are deſcribed by Francis de Lanis, as well as by Schott and Ozanam. Rivault employed ſuch ſand-glaſſes for aſtronomical obſervations; and likewiſe Tycho Brahe, who uſed alſo clocks conſtructed with quickſilver.

IV. *Ingenious Water-clocks and other Machines, the moving Principle of which was different from that of our common Clocks that go by Wheel-work.*

UNDER this head the author ſpeaks of the machine which king Gonebaud received as a preſent from Theodoric king of the Goths. He gives alſo a deſcription of the beforementioned clock ſent by Harun al Raſchid to Charlemagne. At that period the eaſtern princes preſented clocks to the weſtern; at preſent this mode is reverſed. This chapter contains alſo a deſcription of ſome other ingenious clocks from Schott, Kircher, Ozanam, Martinelli and de Lanis; alſo Perrault's pendulum-clock, which was moved by water, and a Chineſe one which Y-Hang cauſed to be conſtructed.

V. *The Invention of Clocks moved by Wheels and Weights, and their progreſſive Improvement till the middle of the ſeventeenth Century.*

THE invention of clocks moved by wheels and weights, as well as the period of the invention, is totally unknown. The author, however, has collected the reſearches of learned men on this ſubject, and refutes the opinion of thoſe who make the invention to be not older than the fourteenth century. The invention, however, was not very great, as the more perfect water-clocks were before that period furniſhed with wheels, ſo that the only improvement was the ſubſtitution of a ſolid body to act as a moving weight inſtead of water. The principal point was to produce uniformity in the action of theſe weights; and in this reſpect the firſt clocks moved by weights were deficient till the time of Huyghens. It is not therefore to be wondered at, that the application of weights to clocks as a moving power ſhould excite ſo little

attention as to be ſcarcely thought worth notice by cotemporary writers: water and ſand were indeed more convenient than a ſolid weight, which requires too much room for its motion. The author is of opinion that the origin of clocks with weights is as old as the eleventh century, and adduces very probable grounds in ſupport of it; but it is not properly aſcertained, whether the inventor was an European or a Saracen. The oldeſt complete clock moved by weights, of which there is any certain teſtimony, is that ſent by the ſoltan of Egypt in the year 1232, to the emperor Frederic II, the value of which was at that time eſtimated at 5000 ducats. In the thirteenth century many of the church ſteeples in Italy were furniſhed with clocks moved by weights that ſtruck the hours. About the ſame time the well-known clock-houſe at Weſtminſter-hall was furniſhed with a clock that ſtruck the hours; the expence of which was defrayed by a fine impoſed on one of the judges. The clock moved by weights of the abbot Richard of Wallingford, which by many has been conſidered as the oldeſt, was conſtructed in the fourteenth century. In the year 1394, Padua obtained the firſt clock, ſuppoſed to have been conſtructed by the celebrated philoſopher, phyſician, aſtronomer and mechaniſt James Dondi. That ſuch clocks might be introduced into England, Richard III gave a patent to three Netherlanders, in the year 1368. Courtrai in France, had a clock that ſtruck the hours ſo early as the year 1332: it was carried away in that year by Philip the Bold of Burgundy, and conveyed to Dijon, where it is ſtill to be ſeen. The firſt large clock at Paris was erected in 1364, by a German artiſt, Henry von Wick, who received daily ſix French ſous, together with free lodging in the tower of the Palais, to which the clock was removed in 1370. Bologna obtained the firſt public clock in 1356; Pavia, in 1402; Breſlaw, by Schwelbelin, in 1368; Straſburg, in 1370; Augſburg, in 1398; Nuremberg, in 1462; and Venice, in 1497. The firſt clocks were expenſive, and many cities, deſirous of having ſuch machines, were not able to raiſe money to purchaſe them. In the year 1523, the fines levied from the ſtudents at Oxford, were employed to defray the expence of the clock erected on the church of St. Mary. Private individuals, however, about this time began to obtain clocks. The firſt inſtance of a clock with weights being employed for aſtronomical purpoſes occurs in 1484, when Walther, as he ſays, with a well regulated clock, made an obſervation of Mercury. Tycho had three of theſe clocks, which ſhowed minutes and ſeconds: he found, however, that they were expoſed to variations from the influence of the atmoſphere and wind; on which account he cauſed to be conſtructed a quickſilver clock, in which diſtilled quickſilver, inſtead of ſand and water, ſhowed minutes and ſeconds. To produce an uniform fall, ſo much quickſilver dropped from another veſſel into the hour-veſſel as was ſufficient to keep it always at the ſame height. As the ſtudy of aſtronomy required more accurate meaſurers of time, we are indebted to that ſcience for the improvement of theſe inſtruments, the conſtruction of which does ſo much honour to the human genius.

VI. *Invention of Watches and Table-Clocks.*

Hele of Nurnberg is generally conſidered as the inventor of watches or ſpring-clocks, as they ought properly to be called; the firſt of which he is ſaid to have conſtructed in the year 1500. According to others, Halbrecht of Straſburg was the inventor; but his firſt clock was conſtructed in 1520, and conſequently twenty years later than Hele; who, it is certain, made ſmall ſpring-clocks or watches ſo early as 1500. Nurnberg and Augſburg were the firſt cities of Germany in which watches were made. Hele's watches not only indicated the hours, but ſtruck them alſo. Andrew Heinlein, who trod in

Hele's footſteps, made ſmall clocks in the ſmelling-balls which were uſed in his time. In the architectural office at Augſburg, there is a watch above 200 years old, which ſtrikes the hours: it is contained in a cryſtal caſe, and was made by Buſchman. There were ſtriking watches in France, in the time of Louis XI. The oldeſt watch in England, that goes ſtill pretty well, is of the year 1540, and is preſerved in the palace of Hampton-court.

VII. *Invention of the Fuſee, Pendulum, and ſpiral Spring.*

THE fuſee was in all probability invented in England, about the end of the ſixteenth century, by whom is not known, and was thence introduced into Germany. It was examined geometrically by Varignon and De la Hire, in order to determine the moſt advantageous form; which, however, does not always avail, on account of the inequality of the ſpring, and therefore advantage is taken of other mechanical means: of this kind is the balance, by means of which the power of the ſpring can be adjuſted, and which undoubtedly was invented in Swiſſerland about the beginning of the eighteenth century. In the firſt watches with fuſees, the diameter was ſmall, and the box large and broad. The catgut, by which it was wound up, paſſed eight or nine times around the fuſee. This made the watch clumſy and ill-ſhaped. The catgut, however, was ſoon exchanged for a chain, which conſiſts of ſmall plates of ſteel united together with great labour. In the middle of the ſeventeenth century, Huyghens invented a better method of regulating the movement of clocks. In the year 1657, he applied the pendulum as a regulator to large clocks moved by weights; and, ſome years after, recommended the balance ſpring for watches. Before that period ſome had uſed, inſtead of the ſpoon-formed balance, one in the form of a ring, or employed a ſmall fly wheel; and Hautefeuille uſed at firſt a ſwine's briſtle, and then a weak, ſtraight, ſteel ſpring, for regulating the balance. In the year 1674, Huyghens cauſed a watch with a ſpiral balance ſpring to be conſtructed by Turet at Paris. Dr. Hook entered into a diſpute with Huyghens in regard to this invention, and proved that he had invented ſuch a watch for Charles II, which had the inſcription Robert Hook, *invenit* 1658, Tompion *fecit* 1675; and that he had ſolicited a patent for ſuch watches in 1660, but did not obtain it till 1675.

[To be continued.

Curious Anecdote in the Hiſtory of the DOMESTICATION *of* ANIMALS.

THE cleverest woman I ſaw in Paris when I was there in my youth, ſays the author of the agreeable Miſcellany, publiſhed under the name of M. de Vigneul Marville,' was a lady who, by great pains, had ſucceeded in teaching a dog, a cat, a ſparrow, and a mouſe, to live together with the ſeeming mutual kindneſs of brothers and ſiſters.

The four animals were accuſtomed to lie together on the ſame bed, and to eat, all out of the ſame plate Out of the plate, the dog helped himſelf the firſt, and that largely. He failed not, however, to leave a portion for the cat The cat then made her meal, and left ſome nice tid-bits for the mouſe; and ſome dainty crumbs of bread remained at the ſame time for the ſparrow, which none of the reſt ſtrove to ſnatch from her. After eating, the company went to dance. The dog licked the cat; the cat dreſſed the dog; and the mouſe played with the cat's paws; who kept back her talons, and preſented only her ſmooth velvet toes to her little playfellow. The ſparrow hopped up and down, and pecked, ſometimes one, ſometimes another, of its comrades, without loſing a ſingle feather by the ſport. Such, in ſhort, was the union among thoſe aſſociates, that they were all of one humour, as to amuſements, and lived together without ſuſpicion, ſurpriſe, or malverſations.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE COW-POCK.

[From 'Hints designed to promote Beneficence, Temperance, and Medical Science.' By John Coakley Lettsom, M. and L.L.D.]

A JUDICIOUS phyſician, who has long and attentively cultivated medicine, muſt have witneſſed the riſe and progreſs of various ſyſtems, and ſpeculative opinions of its profeſſors; but, while experience enables him to appreciate theſe opinions, his judgment will not bias him againſt the reception and encouragement of medical diſcoveries and improvements. Under ſuch ſentiments I have been led to pay particular attention to a ſubject, which forms a new era in practical medicine, and a new ſource of human felicity, if not of human exiſtence; and, as I have been requeſted, by many profeſſional and other reſpectable characters, to deliver my opinion on this important ſubject, as likely to influence their conduct, I have deemed it my duty to declare my ſentiments, however ſuperfluous they may be conſidered by others, after the communications of Jenner, Woodville, Pearſon, Ring, Waterhouſe, Addington, and Aikin.

An animal whoſe lacteal fountains afford in our infancy a ſubſtitute for that of the parent, and from which we draw, through life, a conſiderable portion of our nutriment, is deſtined by the ſagacity of one enlightened philoſopher to protect the human ſpecies from the moſt loathſome and noxious diſeaſe to which it is ſubjected. In reflecting upon its ravages, the mind revolts with horror; not merely from its fatal deva ſtation, but likewiſe from the deformity it inflicts upon its victims, by rendering the faireſt ſublunary being, that god-like countenance impreſſed by the Creator, an object of compaſſion, if not of diſguſt. I contemplate, therefore, with medical pride, and not leſs with national gratitude, the name and diſcovery of Dr. Edward Jenner*; who by conveying from a ſmall puſtule on the teats or nipples of the udder of the domeſtic cow, a particle of matter, under the cuticle of the human ſubject, has eſtabliſhed the divine art of preventing the ravages, and even the appearance, of that ſcourge of his exiſtence, the ſmallpox.

From time immemorial this domeſtic animal has been conſecrated among ancient nations as an object of worſhip; to all it is now an object of grateful admiration. What then is due to that philoſopher, who has drawn new and heretofore unexplored ſources of hap-

* Although the cow pock had long ſince been found by incidental experience a ſecurity againſt the ſmallpox, it had never been applied to any beneficial purpoſe, till the genius of Jenner diſcriminated its powers, and introduced it into practice, as a permanent ſecurity againſt the variolous infection. This preventive quality of the vaccine fluid was certainly known even to ſcientific profeſſional men many years ago; but, ſtrange as it may now appear, no one, till Jenner promulgated his diſcovery, had ever improved that knowledge, by applying it to the proceſs of inoculation. About twenty years ago, when Dr. Archer was the phyſician of the hoſpital for inoculation, Catharine Wilkins, now Titchenor, from Cricklade, in Wiltſhire, who had had the cow-pock in conſequence of milking cows, came to her brother in London, (where ſhe is now reſident) who, being deſirous of aſcertaining whether this circumſtance could be depended upon as preventive of the ſmallpox, ſent her to the hoſpital for inoculation, when ſhe received the variolous matter from Dr. Archer; againſt which, however, ſhe was proof, and the ſmallpox of courſe could not be communicated; but no advantage was derived from this fact.—Archer was a prudent, cautious, and rather timid practitioner; and the hoſpital for inoculation owes much of its importance to his perſevering attention to its intereſts; but he neither poſſeſſed the ſpirit of penetrating inquiry of Woodville; nor the genius of diſcovery of that man, who was deſtined to form a new era in medical practice.

pineſs from this ſalutiferous animal! Gratitude calls upon the nation for a national reward; and great indeed would it be, were it adequate to the national good that muſt reſult from this wonderful diſcovery, which embraces at once the following axioms:

I. It prevents the acceſſion of the moſt fatal malady under heaven—the variolous infection.

II. It is not infectious or contagious.

III. It is believed, that it never has been fatal, and never will be.

IV. It creates no blemiſh, or mark, on the human frame.

V. It conveys no conſtitutional diſeaſe.

It has indeed been calculated that, of 60,000 perſons who have been inoculated with the cow-pock, four have died. I cannot bring my imagination, from the experience I have had, to conceive, that any healthy ſubject can die of a proceſs which can hardly be called a diſeaſe; or, in other words, that a ſingle puſtule (for there is rarely more) can prove fatal. Prejudice or ignorance have given riſe to various reports, which inquiry has proved unfounded. It muſt, however, be acknowledged, that many miſtakes have been committed by practitioners; matter has been taken from the chicken-pox (*varicellæ*) and too frequently from the purulent fluid round the ſcab of the cow-pock, or in the variolous puſtule; and in either caſe it is needleſs to ſay, inoculation under ſuch circumſtances is no ſecurity againſt the ſmallpox.

But ſuppoſing four might have died in 60,000 perſons inoculated by the cow-pock, it can hardly afford an argument againſt the practice; for if we calculate, that the proceſs of the eruption, &c. may occupy fourteen days, who would enſure 60,000 healthy perſons for fourteen days under the chance of no more than four dying in that period?

It is not in vaccine inoculation alone that miſtakes have been committed, even by practitioners of eſtabliſhed character. I lately attended two young perſons under the ſmallpox, each an only child, of conſiderable family, who had been inoculated two or three years before by reſpectable gentlemen; and the mothers of the children ſhowed me what they conceived to be the marks or pitting from the inoculated ſmallpox: happily, they both recovered from an alarming eruption of the diſeaſe; but two relations I once claimed, who were inoculated with matter ſuppoſed to be variolous, by an eminent inoculator, afterward caught the ſmallpox, on one of whom it proved fatal. Theſe inſtances of error, ſo injurious to the medical character, and diſtreſſing to the community, ſhould excite the moſt guarded circumſpection in the profeſſors of the healing art.

Condamine, in deſcribing the ſuperior ſafety of variolous inoculation, compared with the natural infection; repreſents the latter as a rapid river, which every individual is liable to paſs over; and the former to a boat, which each may avail himſelf of, to enſure a ſafe paſſage; while thoſe who do not embrace this conveyance muſt incur the riſk of plunging into this dangerous current. If this alluſion exhibit the ſuperior advantages of variolous, may we not ſubſtitute an adamantine bridge in favour of vaccine inoculation?

The higheſt honours have been conferred on heroes both ancient and modern, who have deſolated provinces by the deſtruction of their fellow creatures: trophies and ſtatues have been erected to commemorate ſanguinary deeds. Saul may have boaſted of his thouſand ſlain, and David of his ten thouſands; but the altar of Jenner is not conſecrated by hecatombs of the ſlain; his claim is that of having multiplied the human race, and happily invoked the goddeſs of health, to arreſt the arm that ſcatters peſtilence and death over the creation!

All Europe is now convinced of the ſalutary reſult of vaccine inoculation. In Aſia, Africa, and America like-

wiſe, wherever it has been practiſed, it has arreſted the progreſs of the ſmallpox; at the ſame time, in this ſalutary proceſs, it occaſions no ſerious diſeaſe itſelf. The moſt unequivocal and unbiaſſed relations, from various parts of the European and American continents, atteſt theſe facts; even France, ſupine perhaps at firſt in appreciating the value of this diſcovery, has at length participated in the general acclamation of its ineſtimable benefits, as appears by a paper inſerted in the Moniteur of the 11th Ventoſe, 1801, as a letter addreſſed to the reſpective mayors of the twelve diſtricts of Paris, by the medical committee of that city, in which it is obſerved:

'That the vaccinated have been inceſſantly expoſed to the contagion of the ſmallpox, even by ſleeping in the ſame bed, and eating and drinking out of the ſame veſſels without any effect*. More than ſeventy-two have been inoculated for the ſmallpox, yet none have taken the infection †.

'The committee have thus by numerous experiments, verified the obſervations of the Engliſh phyſicians; and is convinced of the truth of the three principal ſtatements:

I. That the vaccine is a very ſlight diſeaſe.

II. That it is not contagious.

III. That it is an effectual preſervative againſt the ſmallpox.

'The committee is preparing a report, in which, as well as rendering an account of its own labour, it will demonſtrate theſe great truths; and eſtabliſh the public opinion with reſpect to the moſt brilliant, and the moſt important diſcovery of the 18th century; to which France, Europe, and the whole world, will be indebted to the annihilation of that moſt deſtructive ſcourge, which has ravaged and deſolated it for ſo many centuries.'

Our gallic neighbours, with whom a warm imagination is a prominent paſſion, in ſpeaking of the Jennerian diſcovery, as the moſt brilliant of the 18th century, have expreſſed a ſentiment inadequate to its magnitude; as it is believed to be the greateſt diſcovery in ancient or modern hiſtory. I may be deemed an enthuſiaſt in my opinion; but if he, who is able to exhibit a more momentous diſcovery, is alone permitted to apply this epithet, I may challenge the imputation with impunity. If we appreciate the importance of the diſcoveries of Gunpowder, Printing, the Mariner's Compaſs, and the Circulation of the Blood, the Jennerian diſcovery will ſtill diſplay a prominent era in the contemplation and gratitude of poſterity.

Ye Literati, under the deſignation of reviewers and critics, whoſe penetrating eye pervades the ample circle of ſcience; and whoſe deciſions impoſe a tone upon public opinion, and widely influence even the judgment of every reflecting mind; in proportion to that influence, ought you to ſtand forward upon this intereſting occaſion.—Not with that cold approbation, bordering upon indifference, if not apathy, which has been painfully noticed in ſome of your criticiſms; but with an impreſſive ardour adequate to the imperious neceſſity of animating the multitude to ſelf-preſervation.

When Herſchell fixed the ſite of the Georgium Sidus in the great volume of the heavens, you raiſed the theme of ardent praiſe to this unrivalled aſtronomer; but what is the Georgium Sidus, in competition with the Jennerian diſcovery! Has it conveyed to one human being a ſingle ray of advantage? Contemplate with impartiality the latter, whoſe beneficent rays are deſtined to diſſipate the gloomy atmoſphere of peſtilential mortality; whoſe fatal victims, I am bold to ſuggeſt, amount to 210,000 annually in

* Children ſucking, under the vaccine diſeaſe, do not infect their mothers, who have not had it; nor the mothers the children.

† In England, and other parts, the number may be extended to full 50,000, or even perhaps double that number at this time.

Europe alone! Does this reflection admit of a coldneſs of deſcription? Dip your pens in ethereal and indelible ink!—Impreſs your obſervations in characters legible to the moſt diſtant regions of the globe!

Ye Paſtors, whoſe congregations liſten to you for information; may a retroſpection of the ravages of the ſmallpox, and the proſpect of its extinction by the vaccine inoculation, excite your piety to promote the ſalutary practice in public and private! As the Creator, it is believed, gave exiſtence to rational beings, in order to augment rational happineſs; may you co-operate in forwarding this benign purpoſe, by inculcating the duties of ſelf-preſervation! and,

Ye Parents, who are the natural guardians of your offspring, do not heſitate in adopting a proceſs that exempts them from variolous contagion, and its frequent concomitant, death; when you read in the bills of mortality, the weekly returns of its victims, in numbers from forty to fifty; and reflect, that each of them might have been living objects of affection to their parents, and of national benefit to the ſtate, had their guardians embraced the ſalutary diſcovery I allude to! Not a day paſſes in this metropolis, without witneſſing the immolation of infants ſacrificed by this contagion *! And ſhall they not excite one pang of remorſe to ſurviving guardians; on reflecting, that with as much ſecurity as they paſs through the chambers of their houſes, might theſe infants have eſcaped the valley of the ſhadow of death! I do not heſitate to declare, that I never enter the habitations of the rich or the poor (for each may be equally uſeful in their reſpective allotments) without feeling an ardent deſire for the ſecurity of their infantile denizens, againſt this moſt deſtructive diſeaſe.

Mothers! Your infants cannot reaſon for themſelves, but they call upon your protection, by every tender and winning geſture. How have you been delighted, when their playful hands inſtinctively preſs your boſoms, to ſolicit the flow of that nutritive fluid that percolates from your heart's blood, and adds to theirs! When they look up to you with ſmiling innocence, how ardently you preſs their lips with careſſes and kiſſes! With ardour I invoke you to ſhield their endearing features with the *ægis* of Jenner.

In ſpite of the moſt obvious and uniform ſucceſs of vaccine inoculation, individuals have oppoſed the practice from a refinement of reaſoning, that on the other hand appears to be rather concluſive in its favour; they have objected to it on account of its origin, and conferred upon it the epithet of a beaſtly diſeaſe, and branded its promoters, as being poſſeſſed with the cow-mania †. Of the primary ſources of infectious diſeaſes, little is yet clearly aſcertained; that ſome have originated from animals is certain; but, of all animals, the cow is moſt congenial to the habits of man; its food is ſimple, and its diſeaſes are few: we are from infancy nouriſhed by its milk, and its fleſh conſtitutes a large portion of human aliment; and ſurely a particle of matter extracted from this almoſt ſacred animal, can excite no diſguſt, or rational idea of impurity; while that of man, too often the creature of appetite and morbid indulgence, with juices vitiated by intemperance, and a conſtitution injured by vice, may indeed afford ſome ſuſpicion of contamination and impurity.

The cowpock, this eruptive affec-

* About 8,000 children annually die in London under four years of age; chiefly occaſioned by the ſmallpox!

† I am truly ſorry that my friend Dr. Moſeley, whoſe learning and extenſive practice muſt greatly influence the public opinion, ſhould have adopted ſuch an expreſſion, or in the leaſt degree diſcouraged the moſt important, brilliant, and ſalutary diſcovery, in the annals of the eighteenth century. Probably he may have formed his opinion from ſome miſtakes he might have witneſſed in the early practice of vaccine inoculation.

tion of the nipples of the cow, which I attempt to elucidate, has long exiſted in various parts of the counties of Glouceſter, Wilts, Somerſet, Buckingham, Devon, Hants, Suffolk, Norfolk, Leiceſter, Stafford, and vicinity of London; and in ſome parts, long and well known as a preventive of the ſmallpox; but it was not employed in medical practice, as has been intimated, till Dr. Jenner introduced it to the knowledge of the public; and by whom it was even ſuſpected to originate from a ſuppurative eruption, or the greaſe, ſo called, a diſeaſe liable to appear on the heel of the horſe.

However dubious this hypotheſis may be, it is of ſerious importance to know, that the udder and teats of the cow are affected with ulcerations totally different from the cow-pock; and conſequently, to diſcriminate with preciſion the genuine appearance of the latter, which is beſt aſcertained by actual obſervation, as many miſtakes have occurred by ſubſtituting the chicken-pox and other eruptive affections, as has been already obſerved. The cow-pock is diſtinguiſhed from the ſlighter ſores of the udder, by a tendency to produce a deep hollow ſore, and differs from the other ulcerations of this organ, by a livid blueneſs, which commonly attends it, and which experience will alone effectually diſtinguiſh. The matter or fluid of the cow-pock is introduced by inoculation, in its recent ſtate, in the ſame manner as the variolous; and it ſhould alſo be introduced by the ſmalleſt poſſible puncture. Its progreſs is likewiſe very ſimilar: in about two days a ſmall reddiſh eminence is viſible; this increaſes in ſize, becomes hard, and by the ſixth day acquires a bluiſh, or light crimſon circle about half an inch in diameter, with a diſcoloured ſpeck, puſtule, or rather veſicle, in the centre, ſomewhat leſs than a pea; this circle, or areola, progreſſively increaſes till the eleventh or twelfth day; after which it gradually vaniſhes.

About the eighth day, a ſlight ſenſation of pain in the inoculated part, and arm-pit, takes place, with a little ſhivering, head-ach, and feveriſhneſs. Theſe uſually ſubſide ſpontaneouſly in a day or two, little or no confinement or reſtraint being requiſite: and indeed, in general, very little indiſpoſition whatever is obſervable. The pains, however, in the inoculated part is ſometimes troubleſome, with conſiderable inflammation, while the puſtular or veſicular part is ſurrounded with a broad circular margin; which, with the preceding ſymptoms, indicate, that the ſyſtem is affected by the vaccine matter. Soon after this period, that is, about the twelfth or thirteenth day, the fluid in the veſicle gradually dries up, and the veſicle itſelf, or puſtule, forms a dark-coloured hard ſcab, which adheres ſeveral days, unleſs pulled off. Sometimes one or more ſmaller ſpots appear on different parts of the body, but in general there is only a ſolitary puſtule, where the vaccine fluid had been inſerted.

Fluid for inoculating other ſubjects may be taken, from the ſixth to the tenth day of the eruption: when taken early, that is, about the fifth, ſixth, or ſeventh days, it is ſuppoſed to be more active, and more certainly to be depended upon for propagating the diſeaſe. After the tenth day, the puſtule is uſually formed into too dry a ſcab to afford matter for inoculation.

By this curſory relation of the progreſs of the vaccine, a conſiderable ſimilarity with that of the variolous inoculation muſt be perceived; the eruption of the former, however, reſembles more a watery veſicle, no ſuppuration in general taking place; while the matter of the ſmallpox is purulent, and the puſtule itſelf has the character of phlegmonic inflammation. The greateſt diſſimilitude appears in one being infectious and dangerous, while the vaccine inoculation is neither infectious nor dangerous.

The progreſs of the vaccine inocu-

lation is not always thus uniform; ſometimes the part inoculated has not ſhown ſigns of the diſeaſe having taken place for upward of a week; and occaſional inſtances have been known, that a puſtule or two reſembling the vaccine has appeared about or after the time that the original vaccine puſtule has been formed into a dry ſcab, or even fallen off. Whether this laſt circumſtance may not have ariſen from a particle of vaccine matter having been conveyed by the patient's fingers to ſome part of the body, may be ſuſpected; it is however certain, that this ſuper-veſication occaſions no diſeaſe or morbid inconvenience. It has been long believed, that one morbid action will impede that of another, in the ſame conſtitution; and perhaps this diſpoſition of the vaccine and variolous inoculation to remain latent, may be occaſioned by ſome other morbid action in the conſtitution; although unknown and unſuſpected. When I practiſed inoculation, I was always deſirous of conveying as ſmall a particle of matter as poſſible under the cuticle, and even preferred the repetition of the operation (ſhould the firſt appear not to have ſucceeded) every three or four days, rather than introducing a large portion of variolous matter at one time. Whether or not this precaution is of real importance I cannot decide, though it has been ſuggeſted, that deep inciſions produce a much larger eruption; but I well recollect inſtances, where I have inoculated three or four times from a ſuſpicion of the preceding operation's having failed; and, at the end of ten, or twelve, or even fourteen days, all the inoculated punctures have ſhowed evidence of having taken the infection, and have ſuppurated nearly in a ſynchronous progreſs; from whence it might be inferred, that ſome latent previous morbid action had impeded that of the variolous, and might in like manner that of the vaccine.——

By the uniform experience of nearly two years, at leaſt with London practitioners, it has been proved, that the vaccine matter neither loſes its original powers, or acquires any new ones, by tranſmiſſion from one human ſubject, that has not had the diſeaſe, to another; though ſome experiments made elſewhere have ſuggeſted an idea, that its efficacy is gradually diminiſhed, and becomes at length inert. The futility of this opinion is now aſcertained; and we know, that the vaccine fluid has been conveyed from one patient to another in ſeventeen hundred ſubjects, in ſucceſſion, with undiminiſhed efficacy; and it is hoped that it will not be deteriorated, or loſe its priſtine virtue, till that dreadful ſcourge the ſmallpox ſhall have been annihilated. This might be effected in the preſent year, ſhould a due ſenſe of ſelf-preſervation influence the community in general. Should the people of theſe kingdoms be thus actuated, about 36,000 additional inhabitants would be added to its population in the year 1802, and ſo progreſſively every ſubſequent year, till the next century, when the whole gained by the Jennerian diſcovery would amount to about twelve millions of fellow-creatures.——

Preparative medicines, or a reſtricted diet, have been little attended to, as the cow-pock is uſually ſo mild as ſcarcely to be called a diſeaſe, or to require either confinement, or medical treatment. The moſt troubleſome circumſtance is the inflammation of the infected arm, and therefore a cool regimen and mild aperient medicines are adviſeable. To the puſtule, if requiſite, may be applied the ſaturnine lotion *. Mercurial ointment has alſo been uſed; and alſo the vitriolic acid has been applied to the puſtule only, on the end of a probe, and in half a minute afterward waſhed off. In a ſtate of inflammation from variolous inoculation, the late baron Dimſdale adviſed a bliſter to the inflamed part:

* The beſt application is aqua lithargyri acetata and water.—One part of the former, to five of the latter.

but it has not been applied under vaccine inoculation; and I imagine it never will be requiſite to have recourſe to any other application, than the aqua lithargyri, diluted with five times its quantity of water, which Dr. Jenner informed me, as has been obſerved, are the proportions he adopts. I have known a common bread and milk poultice anſwer every ſalutary purpoſe.

The moment I had finiſhed this page, I received a ſecond letter from Dr. Jenner; the concluſion of which is ſo applicable to the preſent ſubject, and ſo forcibly expreſſed, that I have preſumed upon the kindneſs of my correſpondent by inſerting it here.

'The ſmallpox rages at this time in the metropolis with deſolating fury. We have the means in our power of ſtopping the calamity:—Why not employ them?

'We perceive as it were our houſes on fire, and with *buckets* in our hands ſtand idly gazing on the flames.

'We bar the door againſt foreign plagues by our laws of quarantine; while the greateſt domeſtic plague that ever infeſted us, is ſuffered to advance without controul. Would it not be wiſdom in the legiſlature to interfere in the cauſe of ſuffering humanity?"

In London and its environs, there are about one million of inhabitants, of whom, 3,000 die annually by the natural ſmallpox, or about 36,000 in Great Britain and Ireland. The population that might reſult, from their preſervation by the cow-pock, would probably re-people theſe kingdoms every century, or give exiſtence to twelve millions of human beings! What a glorious reflection to my friend, who has been the means of preſerving more lives than ever fell to the lot of any other human being!——

On the American continent, inoculation of the ſmallpox is not very generally encouraged *; perhaps it has been thought, that unleſs the practice were general, it would rather tend to keep up and propagate the diſeaſe; for its ſafety beyond the natural ſmallpox is indubitably eſtabliſhed. The cowpock has no peculiarity ſo different from it, as that of not being infectious, which removes this important objection to inoculation.

My friend Dr. Waterhouſe, of Cambridge, near Boſton, with a mind equally liberal and well informed, and poſſeſſing an ardent ſpirit of inquiry, which has been ſucceſsfully exerciſed for the honour of his country, and benefit of the community, by his extenſive correſpondence with Europe, was enabled early to avail himſelf of the diſcovery of the cow-pock, which he introduced into America, and which he has employed with undeviating ſucceſs, and his countrymen now juſtly hail him their benefactor as the Jenner of America, an appellation which was firſt applied by phyſicians of this city to their tranſatlantic coadjutor.——

The vaccine inoculation having been eſtabliſhed by indubitable experience in every quarter of the civilized world, we may now pauſe to conſider, whether or not the variolous inoculation be a juſtifiable practice? Opinions and even prejudices, although ill-founded, which reſult from old habits, ſtrengthened by domeſtic ſenſibility, claim attention, and demand in-

* The duke de la Rouchefaucault Liancourt (Travels in America) ſpeaking of Virginia, he obſerves, 'That a law exiſts, which interdicts inoculation for the ſmallpox without permiſſion from the juſtices, and from all the neighbours within the diſtance of two miles. Any phyſician who ſhould preſume to inoculate without theſe precautions, would be puniſhed by a fine of ten thouſand dollars. Whoever is accidentally attacked by the ſmallpox is carried to a lonely houſe in the middle of the woods, and there he receives medical aſſiſtance. If the village, the town, the diſtrict, to which he belongs, catch the infection, theſe places are cut off from all communication with the reſt of the country, and are permitted to have recourſe to inoculation: otherwiſe it is never allowed.'

dulgence; for there are many individuals, who ſtill prefer variolous to vaccine inoculation; but allowing due condeſcenſion to theſe feelings and prejudices, can a conſcientious medical practitioner encourage, or give his ſanction, to the old practice, which he knows to be attended with the ſacrifice of at leaſt one victim in five hundred caſes (independent of its injurious effect in propagating the infection) while the modern, by vaccine inoculation, is believed never fatal?

Were parents previouſly informed of the probable proportion of deaths by variolous inoculation, and were it, like the vaccine, incapable of communicating infection to others, ſome apology might be admitted, and the old practice in a great meaſure juſtified; but, if we take into the balance, the dangerous influence of variolous inoculation, by ſpreading infection, and endangering the lives of thoſe who have not had the ſmallpox, I can hardly conſider a profeſſional man juſtifiable in ſupporting this practice in the preſent period of experience.

At the inſtant of writing this paſſage a valuable performance *, by my friend Dr. Willan, is put into my hands; and one of the firſt pages preſented to my view contains the following obſervation:

'The ſmallpox and meaſles have prevailed more during this ſpring (Report of April and May, 1798) than has been known for many years paſt. They were diffuſed in the courſe of laſt month (February) through all the villages adjacent to the metropolis. I cannot here paſs over a ſtriking inſtance of the bad effects ariſing from partial inoculation. A child was inoculated in April, whoſe parents kept a ſhop in a court, conſiſting of about twenty houſes. As the inhabitants repaired every day for neceſſary articles to the ſource of infection, the conſequence was, that ſeventeen perſons were affected with the ſmallpox in the natural way, within a fortnight after the child's recovery; and eight of them died of the diſeaſe.'

What a dreadful mortality of our fellow-creatures, of eight in ſeventeen, is here exhibited! Would not a medical practitioner at this period of improved knowledge be reſponſible for ſo fatal cataſtrophe? Knowing the indubitable ſafety of the vaccine pock, it would be his duty to place before the parents, who might ſolicit the variolous infection, the certainty of life on one hand, and the danger of death on the other; and if they refuſed to accept the former, he ought not to be acceſſary to the latter, by acting as the medium of diffuſing the fatal poiſon, unleſs under very particular circumſtances.

* Reports of the diſeaſes in London, particularly during the years 1796, 97, 98, 99, and 1800.

On the proper EXERCISE *of* MEMORY *in early* LIFE.

[From Letters on Education, by Miſs Hamilton.]

EVERY one, who at an advanced period of life has attempted to inſtruct himſelf in any branch of ſcience, muſt be ſenſible how much the difficulty is increaſed, by the loſs of the aptitude, which memory has in early life, for retaining mere perceptions. What is clearly conceived upon the ſubject, the memory faithfully retains; but it is not without great and repeated efforts that the neceſſary *terms* come to be familiarly recollected. I have known ſeveral perſons, who have been by this difficulty deterred from the purſuit of botany, chymiſtry, and other ſciences, for the acquirement of which they felt the moſt ardent inclination. Had the technical terms belonging to thoſe ſciences been committed to memory, at that period of life when words (that is to ſay perceptions) are received with facility,

and recollected with eaſe, the ſciences I have mentioned would have been attained without the ſmalleſt difficulty.

The grammatical rules of every language come exactly under the ſame deſcription. Perſons to whom theſe rules have been familiar from the period of infancy, eaſily acquire the habit of arranging their words with propriety: while thoſe who have not at an early period made this acquirement, though by the ſtudy of philoſophical grammar, they may attain a perfect knowledge of its principles, yet will they in practice be frequently at a loſs, and often liable to error. I candidly confeſs, that I ſpeak this from my own experience; and am ſenſible that a more perfect acquaintance with the rules of grammar, acquired even by rote in early life, would have ſaved me many a painful hour of future ſtudy.

Here, then, have I preſented you with a wide field for the exerciſe of the memory of perceptions. But deceive not yourſelf; deceive not your child into an opinion that it has obtained any *knowledge* from theſe exerciſes. Let them be looked upon as they really are—mere materials, which are to be made uſe of at the proper period. Of real uſe they will certainly be found; they will be as well-tempered mortar in the conſtruction of the ſolid edifice. But you muſt not ſo far miſtake, as to conſider this mortar as the building; if you do, the intellectual fabric will never be reared.

It is, I believe, a very generally received notion, that a taſte for poetry is inſpired by the recitation of verſes. Let us examine in what this taſte conſiſts.

Poetry addreſſes itſelf particularly to the imagination and to the feelings. 'In poetry,' ſays Dr. Stewart, 'the effect is inconſiderable, unleſs upon a mind which poſſeſſes ſome degree of the author's genius; a mind amply furniſhed, by its previous habits, with the means of interpreting the language which he employs; and able, by its own imagination, to co-operate with the effects of the art.' And is it by a ſenſeleſs repetition of the poet's words, that all theſe indiſpenſable requiſites are to be acquired? I grant, that by the repetition of ſmooth verſes, the ear may become ſenſible of harmonious meaſure; and this, I believe, often enough paſſes for poetical taſte. But where the mind is incapable of keeping pace with the rapid aſſociations of the poet; where the fineſt alluſions are loſt for want of conceptions to apprehend their meaning; where the fineſt imagery preſents no object to the mind; the emotions that are excited have ſurely no affinity to the ſublime or beautiful. Even in deſcriptive poetry, unleſs the objects have been familiar to the perceptions, it is impoſſible that the moſt juſt and beautiful deſcription can convey any ideas to the mind.

Let us ſuppoſe a little girl, whoſe acquaintance with natural objects extends to the graſs-plat which ornaments the centre of ſome neighbouring ſquare. In order to cultivate a taſte for deſcriptive poetry, ſhe is enjoined the taſk of getting by heart Gray's celebrated elegy, which abounds in imagery at once natural and affecting. Let us follow her in the conceptions ſhe forms from it. Two lines will be a ſufficient example:

'The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd wind ſlowly o'er the lea.'

The curfew, it is more than probable, ſhe has never heard of. Perhaps in ſome of the 'Beauties of Hiſtory,' which ſhe has read as leſſons, the curfew may have been mentioned; but *it is poſſible* that it may never have been explained; of the tolling of a bell ſhe has perhaps heard, but of the meaning of *knell* ſhe is completely ignorant. With the term *parting day* ſhe, it is likely, aſſociates the idea of the black Monday, on which ſhe parted with her friends to return to ſchool; an aſſociation ſufficiently melancholy to accord with the tone of the poem,

but not very likely to facilitate her knowledge of its deſign. What does ſhe make, what *can* ſhe make, of the ſucceeding line? A *herd* ſhe has probably heard of, as one who takes care of ſheep, goats, or other animals; but why the herd ſhould *low*, is certainly beyond her comprehenſion. How, or in what manner, he *winds*, is equally ſo. She is told, indeed, that he winds ſlowly, and ſhe knows that one may wind a clock or a watch either ſlowly or quickly; and with that idea ſhe probably aſſociates it, paſſing the ſucceeding words of *o'er the lea* as mere expletives, placed there by the poet to lengthen out the line; for which purpoſe *tweedle dee* would, to her conception, have done every whit as well.

I could thus go through the whole poem, and think I ſhould leave no doubt upon your mind at the concluſion, that the child had received as many ideas from this exerciſe of memory, as ſhe would have done from the repetition of any old rhyme.

Where the perceptive powers have been ſufficiently exerciſed upon natural objects, ſo as to render the greater part of a poetical deſcription intelligible, great advantage may indeed ariſe from the peruſal; becauſe, in that caſe, the pleaſure which the mind receives from ſeeing the images with which it has been familiar, ſet in a new, and more elegant, and elevated point of view, will ſerve to enliven the powers of curioſity and obſervation, and prove a ſtimulus to the acquirement of new ideas.

A familiar and intimate acquaintance with the objects of nature will not, it is true, be always ſufficient to inſpire poetical taſte; but without an intimate acquaintance with natural objects, the conceptions of the poet can never be underſtood; for it is from the material world that all the fineſt imagery of the poet is derived. From the ſame ſource we have all our ideas of the ſublime and beautiful. The deſcriptions of the poet, by calling our attention to theſe objects, increaſes the emotions which they have a natural tendency to excite; and thus a taſte for poetry enhances the pleaſure we derive from contemplating the beauties of nature, while an accurate knowledge of natural objects gives to poetry a peculiar zeſt.

It is, then, from a cultivation of the perceptive faculties, that we only can attain thoſe powers of conception which are eſſential to taſte; and without this cultivation, all the beauties of all the poets who have ever written, committed to memory, would do no more toward inſpiring poetical taſte, than the ſmell of a roſe would do toward giving an idea of its colour to one who had been born blind.

From the tenor of theſe obſervations on the cultivation of the perceptive and conceptive faculties, the advantages of a country education in the early part of life will appear ſufficiently evident. Thoſe who have it not in their power to give this advantage to their children; thoſe whoſe ſituation precludes their pupils from the benefit of an extenſive and familiar acquaintance with natural objects, ought to be particularly ſolicitous to make them amends for this misfortune, by ſeizing every opportunity of directing their attention to the natural objects within their reach. If the vegetable world is ſhut to their peruſal, the book of animated nature is open before them. If 'the various landſcape burſts *not* on the ſight,' the ſun, moon, and ſtars, may ſtill be ſeen. Nor ought an attentive examination of the works of art to be neglected. In moſt of theſe, ſome principles of ſcience are involved. From the moſt ſimple piece of mechaniſm ideas may be derived; and no ſource that can furniſh the mind with ideas which are juſt and accurate, ought we to overlook.

Abſtract of the ENUMERATION *of* ENGLAND *and* WALES, *taken* 1801, *in Conformity to an Act of Parliament, and copied from the Report.*

Counties of England and Wales.	*Inhabited Houſes.*	*By how many Families occupied*	*Uninhabited Houſes.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total of Perſons.*
Bedford	11,888	13,980	185	30,523	32,870	63,393
Berks	20,573	23,416	622	52,821	56,394	109,215
Buckingham	20,443	23,834	543	52,094	55,350	107,441
Cambridge	16,159	19,262	312	44,081	45,265	89,346
Cheſter	34,482	37,613	1,139	92,759	98,992	191,751
Cornwall	32,906	39,040	1,472	89,888	98,401	188,209
Cumberland	21,573	25,893	872	54,377	62,363	117,230
Derby	31,822	33,660	1,369	79,401	81,741	161,142
Devon	57,955	72,559	3,235	157,240	185,761	343,001
Dorſet	21,437	24,142	825	53,667	61,652	115,319
Durham	27,195	38,109	1,171	74,770	85,501	160,361
Eſſex	38,371	46,784	1,027	111,356	115,081	226,407
Glouceſter	46,457	55,133	1,715	117,180	133,629	250,809
Hereford	17,003	18,822	941	43 955	45,236	89,191
Hertford	17,681	20,092	491	48,063	49,514	97 577
Huntingdon	6,841	8,150	135	18,521	19,047	37,568
Kent	51,585	65,967	1,413	131,374	156,250	307,624
Lancaſter	114,270	132,147	3,394	312,356	350,375	672,731
Leiceſter	25,992	27,967	742	63,943	66,138	130,081
Lincoln	41,395	42,629	1,094	162,445	106,112	208,557
Middleſex	112,912	199,854	5,171	373,655	444,474	818,129
Monmouth	8,948	9,903	417	22,173	23,409	45,582
Norfolk	47,617	57,930	1,523	129,842	143,529	273,371
Northampton	26,665	29,361	736	63,417	68,340	131,757
Northumberland	26,518	35,503	1,534	73,357	83,744	157,101
Nottingham	25,611	30,081	542	68,558	71,792	140,350
Oxford	20,599	23,750	594	53,786	55,834	109,620
Rutland	3,276	3,563	87	7,978	8,378	16,356
Salop	31,182	34,501	929	82,563	85,076	167,639
Somerſet	48,049	57,013	2,136	126,927	146,823	273,750
Southampton	38,345	45,331	902	105,667	113,989	219,656
Stafford	45,191	48,185	1,995	118,698	120,455	239,153
Suffolk	32,253	43,481	562	101,091	109,340	210,431
Surrey	46,072	63,638	1,514	127,138	141,905	269,043
Suſſex	25,272	30,755	721	78,797	80,514	159,311
Warwick	40,847	44,028	2,936	99,942	108,248	208,190
Weſtmoreland	7,807	9,026	315	20,175	21,442	43,617
Wilts	29,462	30,527	1,127	87,380	97,727	185,107
Worceſter	26,711	29,741	1,109	67,631	71,702	139-333
York. East Riding	25,781	31,544	681	67 457	71,976	139,433
York. North Riding	31,514	34,154	1,014	74,904	80,662	155,506
York. Weſt Riding	111,146	117,379	4,723	276,005	287,948	563,955
	1,467,870	1,778,420	53,965	3 987,935	4,343,499	8,331,434
Angleſey	6,677	7,058	127	15,775	18,031	33,806
Brecon	6,313	6,800	479	15,393	16,244	31,637
Cardigan	8,810	9,415	221	20,403	22,548	42,956
Carmarthen	13,440	14 876	371	31,439	35,878	67,317
Carnarvon	8,302	8,796	129	19,586	21,935	41,521
Denbigh	12,621	13,765	427	29,247	31,105	60,352
Flint	7,584	8,216	194	19,577	20,048	39,622
Glamorgan	14,225	16,596	837	34,199	37,335	71,525
Merioneth	5,787	6,576	193	13,896	15,610	29,506
Montgomery	8,722	9,750	223	22,914	25,064	47,978
Pembroke	11,866	12,448	398	25,406	30,874	58,280
Radnor	3,675	3,987	212	9,347	9,703	19 050
	108,053	118,303	3,511	257,178	284,378	541,546

Abſtract of the ENUMERATION *of* ENGLAND *and* WALES, *taken in* 1801, *in Conformity to an Act of Parliament.*

SUMMARY.	*Inhabited Houſes.*	*By how many Families occupied.*	*Uninhabited Houſes.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total of Perſons.*
England -	1,467,870	1,778,420	53,965	3,987,935	4,343,499	8,331,434
Wales -	108,053	118,303	3,511	257,178	284,368	541,546
Army - -				198,351		198,351
Navy -				126,279		126,279
Seamen in regiſtered veſſels				144,558		144,588
Convicts -				1,410		1,410
Grand Total	1,575,932	1,896,723	57,476	4,715,711	4,627,867	9,343,578

In England 1,524,027 perſons are employed chiefly in agriculture, and 1,789,532 in trade, manufactures, and handicraft. In Wales 189,062 are employed in agriculture, and 53,822 in trade, &c.

It will be obſerved, that when the army and navy are added to the males, there is a total exceſs of the number of males over that of females of 88,844.

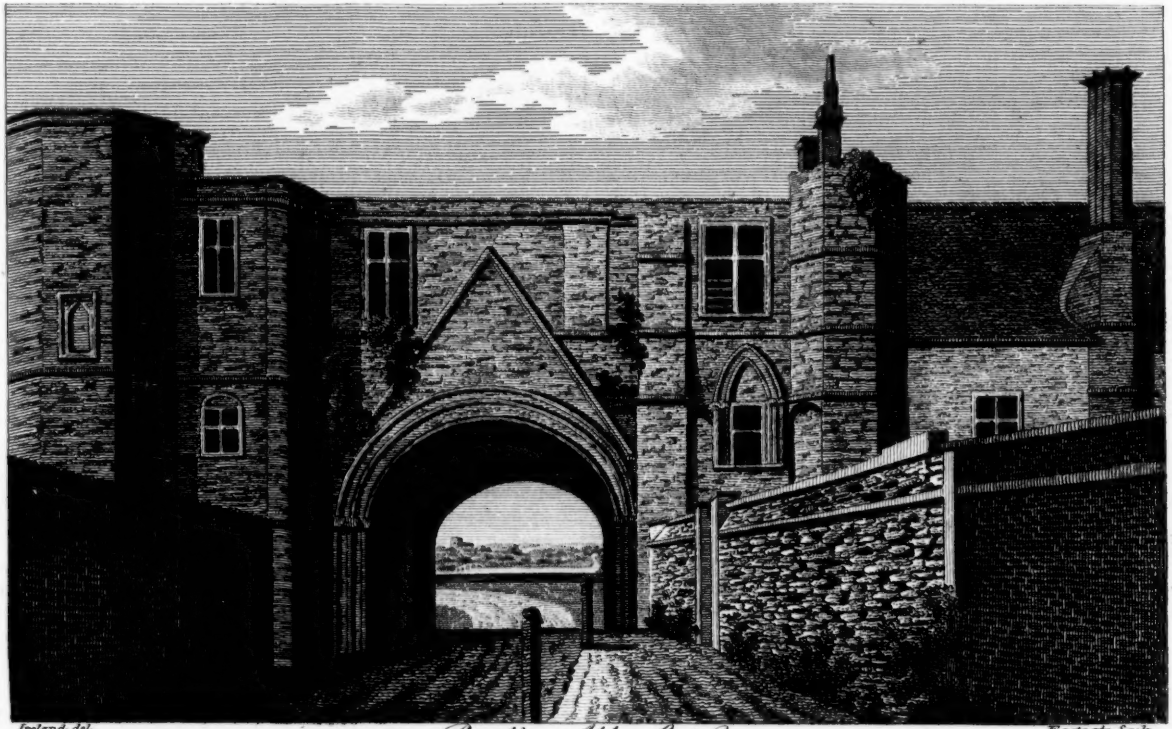
Liſt of all the CITIES *and* TOWNS *in* England *and* Wales, *whoſe Population exceeds* FIVE THOUSAND.

Cities and Towns.	*Inhabited Houſes.*	*By how many Families occupied.*	*Uninhabited Houſes.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total of Perſons.*
London - - -	121,229	216,073	5185	393,369	471,476	864,845
Manchester - - -	12,547	18,560	279	39,11[illegible]	44,910	84,020
Liverpool - - -	11,446	16,989	338	34,167	43,286	77,653
Birmingham - -	14,528	15,303	1873	34,716	38,954	73,670
Briſtol - - -	10,403	14,413	493	26,943	36,702	68,645
Leeds - - -	11,258	11,790	341	25,504	27,658	53,162
Plymouth - - -	4447	10,708	89	18,016	25,178	43,194
Newcaſtle - - -	4199	8944	198	16,343	20,620	36,963
Norwich - - -	8216	9093	747	15,810	21,044	36,854
Bath - - - -	4289	6510	174	12,441	19,759	32,200
Portſmouth - -	5310	6937	30	14,309	17,857	32,166
Sheffield - - -	6518	6754	643	15,483	15,831	31,314
Hull - - -	4649	7449	118	13,051	16,465	29,516
Nottingham - -	4977	6707	100	13,729	15,132	28,861
Exeter a - -	2692	3947	144	7314	10,084	17,398
Leiceſter - - -	3205	3608	85	7921	9032	16,953
York - - - -	2407	3841	72	7018	9127	16,145
Coventry - - -	2930	3548	204	7672	8362	16,034
Cheſter - - -	3109	3427	85	6492	8560	15,052
Dover - - -	3339	3834	231	7187	7658	14,845
Yarmouth - - -	3081	3541	78	6463	8382	14,845
Shrewſbury - - -	2773	3300	88	6647	8092	14,739
Greenwich - - -	2067	3215	54	7323	7016	14,339
Sunderland - - -	1365	3572	14	4902	7510	12,412
Oxford - - - -	1827	2230	82	5920	5774	11,694
Colcheſter - - -	1959	2829	38	5012	6508	11,520

Continuation of the Liſt of all the CITIES *and* TOWNS *in* England *and* Wales, *whoſe Population exceeds* FIVE THOUSAND.

Cities and Towns.	*Inhabited Houſes.*	*By how many Families occupied.*	*Uninhabited Houſes.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total of Perſons.*
Worceſter	2237	2627	133	4959	6443	11,352
Ipſwich	2170	2738	51	4984	6293	11,277
Wigan	2177	2277	59	5068	5921	10,989
Derby	2144	2441	26	4982	5850	10,832
Huddersfield	1873	1873	101	5240	5431	10,671
Chatham	1715	2665	14	4699	5806	10,505
Carliſle	1314	2303	24	4479	5742	10,221
Lynn	1965	2437	47	4540	5556	10,096
Cambridge	1691	2078	42	4964	5123	10,087
Reading	1751	2135	32	4642	5100	9742
Lancaſter	1598	1998	13	3999	5031	9030
Canterbury	1741	2276	58	3805	5195	9000
Macclesfield	1426	1539	101	3979	4764	8743
Whitehaven	1776	2403	47	3348	5394	8742
Maidſtone	1330	1742	16	3835	4192	8027
Southampton	1509	1876	73	3390	4523	7913
Devizes	1552	1728	41	3624	4285	7909
Saliſbury	1489	1833	45	3412	4256	7668
Bury	1380	1641	37	3399	4523	7655
Glouceſter	1325	1732	43	3428	4151	7579
Durham	1024	1930	30	3319	4211	7530
Whitby	1596	1902	108	3271	4212	7483
Lincoln	1518	1619	58	3474	3924	7398
Brighthelmſtone	1282	1380	142	3274	4065	7339
Bradford	1254	1551	34	3473	3829	7302
Berwick	930	1791	35	3009	4178	7187
Northampton	1322	1652	49	3244	3776	7020
Grantham	1385	1456	72	3377	3637	7014
Kendall	1394	1671	30	2950	3942	6892
Hereford	1392	1715	68	3023	3805	6828
Rocheſter	1136	1553	14	3071	3746	6817
Newark	1376	1487	14	3098	3632	6730
Scarborough	1615	1769	50	2730	3958	6688
Sandwich	1287	1407	111	2966	3540	6506
Kidderminſter	1251	1405	44	3020	3090	6110
Swanſea	1182	1504	21	2529	3570	6099
Beverley	1300	1432	35	2734	3267	6001
Boſton	1221	1334	31	2698	3228	5926
Wincheſter	791	902	19	2767	3059	5826
Taunton	1146	1308	48	2450	3344	5794
Warwick	1055	1142	29	2709	3066	5775
Doncaſter	1186	1261	60	2477	3220	5697
Holywell	1093	1189	58	2566	3001	5567
Carmarthen	930	1737	15	2338	3210	5548
Deal	906	1107	11	2284	2936	5420

It may be worth while to obſerve, on the population of the metropolis (as collected at the end of the abſtract) that if the regiments of guards, and militia in London, and the ſeamen on board the regiſtered veſſels in the river Thames, were added to the 864,000, that the metropolis would undoubtedly exceed 900,000 ſouls; almoſt a tenth part of the population of England and Wales; and nearly one-twelfth of the whole people of Great Britain.



Ireland del. *Reading Abbey Gate.* Eastgate Sculp.

SOME ACCOUNT OF READING ABBEY.

With a View of the ABBEY GATE.

THE abbey at Reading was built with the remains of an old caſtle. It was a very magnificent ſtructure, founded by Henry 1, for the maintenance of two hundred Benedictine monks, and the refreſhment of travellers. The building was begun in the year 1121; and completed in 1125. The charter recites, that the abbeys of Reading, Chelſey, and Leominſter, having been deſtroyed for their ſins, and their poſſeſſions having fallen into the hands of the laity; the king, with the advice of his prelates, had built a new monaſtery at Reading, and endowed it with the revenues of the monaſteries of Reading, Chelſey, and Leominſter, together with their appurtenances of wood, &c. with exemption from all tolls and duties. Beſide theſe privileges, the abbot and monks were inveſted with the power of trying criminals, and entruſted, generally, with the conſervation of the town and neighbourhood. In return for theſe extenſive grants, the monks, by obligation in the charter, were to provide the poor, and all travellers, with neceſſary entertainment.

The latter part of the duty was ſo well attended to, that there was always more expended upon ſtrangers than upon the monks themſelves.

The drawing now preſented to our readers, was taken by Mr. Samuel Ireland, a ſhort time before he died, and the faithfulneſs of his ſketches needs no eulogium here.—This gate belonged to the mitred abbey of Reading; or, in other words, the abbot of it had the privilege of ſitting in parliament.

NARRATIVE OF LA JAILLE'S VOYAGE TO SENEGAL.

Concluded from Page 284.

FEW of the negro princes are more abſolute in their authority than king Brac. He has power to reduce all his ſubjects to the ſtate of ſlaves, and to ſell them as ſuch, without being liable to be puniſhed for ſuch tyranny. He is ſole proprietor of all the lands; and his ſubjects are obliged to cultivate for him thoſe which he retains in his own immediate poſſeſſion. On his journies through his dominions he is ſupported at the expence of his people; yet there are few princes who live in a worſe ſtate than himſelf. His principal revenue conſiſts in cuſtoms to the value of about 250l ſterling, which he derives from the trade of the French company. In caſe of war, all his ſubjects take arms. The chiefs of the different villages follow their prince at the head of an undiſciplined rabble. The principal force is in cavalry, and a ſingle battle decides the conteſt. The vanquiſhed party retires, and ſues for peace. The victors commonly aſk no better than to return unmoleſted home, with the booty they have taken. When, indeed, the advantage of the victory is very deciſive, the conquered prince is obliged to acknowledge himſelf the vaſſal of his conqueror, and to promiſe a yearly tribute. Theſe conditions of peace are ſoon violated, and a new war enſues. The ſoldiers have neither pay nor proviſions allowed them. What plunder they may take, remains the ſole reward for their ſervice. The ſhares of the chiefs are almoſt as large as that of the ſovereign himſelf. They fight bravely in battle, for fear of being made ſlaves; and when once the flight of either army has enſued, avarice ſoon ſtops the carnage, as the priſoners are all made ſlaves, and form the moſt valuable part of the ſpoil.

The ruler of the kingdom of the

Foules has the title of Siratick. His dominions extend for a length of 140 leagues, on both ſides of the river. Their exact breadth is much leſs conſiderable; but is not perfectly known. Ivory Iſle, and the Iſle of Bilbas, are within his territories.

Fort Podor, beforementioned, ſtands on Ivory Iſle, at the diſtance of ſixty leagues inland from the mouth of Senegal river. The iſle is highly fertile, yields a great deal of millet, and affords paſturage to vaſt numbers of cattle. Coffee, cotton, and indigo, grow there ſpontaneouſly. It is even ſaid, that the ſugar-cane might be cultivated in the ſame place with good ſucceſs. The object of the company in forming a ſettlement on this iſle in the year 1743, was to obtain ſupplies of proviſions to the inhabitants in the iſle of St. Louis, to protect the trade, and to ſecure means of communication with the inland country adjacent to the river.

The iſle of Bilbas is ſituate at the diſtance of ſeventy leagues inland, above Podor; is rich in paſtures, and of an air and temperature favourable to the health of man. Even this laſt conſideration were alone ſufficient to encourage the formation of a ſettlement upon it. It would be a ſcene to which travellers might reſort for the recovery of loſt health. And, as there are Mooriſh tribes, and foreſts of gum-trees not far diſtant from it, it might, within no long time, become a principal mart for the gum-trade.

The Siratick is much more powerful than the Brac. He poſſeſſes a numerous body of cavalry. His dominions are ſubdivided into ſeveral different provinces. Of theſe, each province is governed by a lieutenant, with abſolute power, and with a military force under his command. Theſe ſoldiers are, however, undiſciplined, and indifferently armed, ſo that they would be able to make ſmall reſiſtance to any enemies but a rabble of negroes like themſelves. Two or three companies of European ſoldiers, with two or three field-pieces, would be at any time ſufficient to put to flight the moſt powerful of theſe negro armies.

The manners, uſages, government, and religion of the kingdom of the Foules, are in almoſt all reſpects the ſame as thoſe of the ſubjects of the Brac. Their language alone is different. The cuſtoms paid by the French company to the Siratick, are ſomewhat more than 45l ſterling.

The kingdom of Galam, adjoining to that of the Foules, extends along the Senegal river, for about forty leagues, and terminates at a cataract, which interrupts the navigation of the river, and beyond which the French have rarely attempted to advance. The northern and ſouthern boundaries of this kingdom are unknown. The ſubjects of the king or *Tunka* of Galam, are of a turbulent character; and his ſituation is a very uncertain and uneaſy one. They, however, in the caſe of revolution, make their new choice of a ſovereign always out of the old family, and prefer him who is the neareſt related by the female ſide to their old ſovereign. The power of this prince depends greatly on his own courage and ability to win the confidence of his ſubjects.

The people of Galam, and the adjacent territories, are named Serracolets. They are treacherous and cruel. They compoſe ſeveral different ſtates, which are ſometimes reſpectively independent, ſometimes ſubject to one another. The king of Galam is even ſaid to pay tribute to the king of Caſſou, a negro prince, whoſe dominions lie inland from the cataract of Govina. The French had anciently a fortreſs at Galam; but it was ſubject to great inconveniences from the noxiouſneſs of the air, and the frequent riſings of the river. The Britiſh, therefore, while they were maſters of the ſettlement, abandoned that fort. The French had before intended to transfer it to the convenient ſituation of Sangalon, on the river Felemé. The deſign of erecting a fort in this ſituation was to facilitate the trade in

ſlaves, which are the moſt readily purchaſed there. A party of the inhabitants of Senegal and Gorce goes every year to Galam. They ſet off in forty boats, in the month of July, and about the end of October reach the place of their deſtination. A fair, to which the Moors reſort, is there held during the firſt fifteen days of November. Gold, ivory, bullock's hides, rice, with ſeveral ſorts of millet and Turkey corn, are among the articles which the Moors bring for ſale: they receive in return coined guineas, fire-arms, hardware-goods, &c. When the waters begin to fall, the flotilla then ſets off on its voyage down the river. A ſail of fifteen days brings them home. And it may well be ſuppoſed that they are, at their return, received with the livelieſt joy.

The Moors who viſit Galam are called Mandingoes. Their principal employment is in traffic. They live in wandering hordes in Galam, and the countries ſw from it, in a ſort of independence; only paying ſome ſmall tributes to the chiefs of the countries, which they occaſionally occupy. They travel in caravans throughout all the interior parts of Africa; carrying European merchandize inland, and returning with ſlaves, gold, and ivory. They are all Marabouts, or men of the law; a profeſſion from which they derive protection in their journies.

The voyage to Galam is a very unhealthy and dangerous one. The air is noxious and torrid. The paſſengers are terribly infeſted with inſects, and are deluged with continual rains. The river, when ſwollen to its greateſt height, is agitated by an incredible force of currents, and the difficulties of the navigation are, from time to time, much enhanced by contrary winds. The boats ſail in one ſingle line, one following another. Cuſtoms are, beſides, to be paid to different petty princes who occupy the river's banks. Delays are frequently produced by negociation reſpecting the cuſtoms. And ſome of the boats are at times ſeized by thoſe barbarians. The health of the natives is ſuch as to bear, unimpaired, the dangers of this voyage; but to Europeans it proves often fatal. The returning voyage is leſs dangerous and diſagreeable, becauſe the bad part of the ſeaſon is then paſt; and the veſſels ſail with the wind and the courſe of the river in their favour.

By the information of a Marabout, I have learned, that the paſſage is ſhorter and more convenient by land. There are eight months of the year, in any one of which the journey by land to Galam may be accompliſhed in twenty-four days. The moſt favourable time, however, for undertaking it, is in the beginning of April. The temperature of the weather is then cool; and north winds ſteadily prevail.

The kingdoms of Bamboue and Bondou, ſituate ſouth from that of Galam, are famous for the riches of their mines. In 1730, the mines were examined by a perſon in the ſervice of the French African company, who brought a ſatisfactory account of them, but was, in a ſecond journey thither, murdered by a party of the natives, at fort St. Joſeph. In the year 1741, by the advice of Mr. David, director-general at Senegal, the company gave new orders to explore the mines of Galam. The execution of theſe orders was interrupted by the war which broke out in 1744. In 1756, the views on the mines were renewed. They were again examined, and ſome ſpecimens of gold from them of the higheſt purity were tranſmitted to Paris. The taking of Senegal by the Britiſh in 1758, alone hindered them from being then wrought. The two principal mines are thoſe of Natacou and Kelimani, both ſituate near a ſmall river, which has the name of the Golden river, has its ſource near the village of Tambaoura, and joins the Felemé, at the diſtance of about fourteen or fifteen leagues above the mouth of the latter. Theſe mines are but about fourteen or fifteen leagues diſtant from fort St. Joſeph. Since

the peace of 1783, they have been neglected.

To ſpeak of the vegetables of Senegal, I ſhall mention firſt the acacia. It is rather a ſhrub than a tree, its height from fifteen to twenty feet; its wood, white, hard, and of a very cloſe texture; its bark of an aſhen colour. Its trunk grows generally bent to one ſide or another; and it is covered, from the root to the top with twiſting branches, which are very irregularly diſpoſed, and give far from an elegant appearance to the tree. Its leaves are ſmall, and conſiſt each of four or five pairs of pinnulæ, each ſupporting twelve or fifteen pairs of foliola, each one line in length, one-fifth of a line in breadth, ſmooth, venous, obtuſe, and ſlightly pointed at the ſummit. At the baſe of each leaf, are three prickles, conical, blackiſh, ſparkling, two lines in length. The flowers are white. The fruits are flat ſhells, very ſmall, elliptical, pointed at both ends, yellow, not exceeding three inches and a half in length, nor nine lines in breadth, with veins on the outſide, and ſlightly waved at the edges, covered alſo with hairs ſo ſhort as to be ſcarce diſcernible. Each of theſe ſhells contains about the number of ſix ſeeds, very flat and orbicular, or elſe ſomewhat cordiform. This tree grows in Senegal, and commonly on ſandy grounds near the ſea ſhore. It yields the white gum, which is brought from this part of the ſouth coaſt of Africa to France, and which, though more eſteemed than that from Egypt, is however confounded with it under the common name of Gum-Arabic.

Monkey's bread is the name given to a tree that grows here, and has been by ſome perſons thought to be the ſame as the tamarind-tree. It grows to the common height of the walnut-tree. Its tufted branches ſpread out to a great width. Its trunk grows to ſuch thickneſs, that twelve perſons together will ſcarce do more than comprehend it with their outſtretched arms. In the iſle of Saura, is one of theſe trees, not leſs than ſixty feet in circumference. In Senegal, the negroes make from its fruit, with the addition of water and ſugar, or honey, a drink which ſerves to quench their thirſt not unpleaſantly.

Of the various ſpecies of the palm-tree, the viniferous palm-tree is that moſt common at Senegal. It has from the natives the name of Ronu. Its trunk is large and ſtraight, like a column of fifty or ſixty feet high, with a bunch of leaves forming a round tuft at its upper extremity. Each of theſe bunches at the tops of the palms looks like a fan, five or ſix feet wide, and ſupported on a ſtem of the ſame length. The fruits of the female trees are as large as a melon of the common ſize, but ſomewhat longer, involved in a coriaceous covering, as ſtrong as parchment, under which is a yellowiſh ſubſtance full of coarſe filaments, which are connected with three large kernels. The negroes are fond of eating this fruit when it is roaſted under the aſhes. It has ſomewhat of a metallic taſte, and its ſmell is ſtrong but not diſagreeable. The viniferous palm-tree is ſo named, becauſe it affords a liquor which is called Palm-wine. That liquor, when drunk within twenty-four hours after it has been drawn from the tree, is very refreſhing.

The camel is the moſt uſeful of the domeſticated animals which belong to this country. He not only bears the heavieſt burdens, but is the moſt patient and ſober of quadrupeds. He will travel on for ſeveral months together in theſe arid deſarts, with very little water. The milk of the female is an excellent beverage; and the fleſh of this creature is the beſt animal food which the Moors have. The Arabian horſes at Senegal, are ſmaller than thoſe of the ſame breed which we have in Europe; but active, well-ſhaped, and of a great diverſity of colours. The elephant, the moſt remarkable of the wild animals of this part of Africa, is a ſource of great profit to the negroes.

From Senegal, after ſome delay, I was ſent on a voyage to the iſle of Goree. Goree is ſituate in 14° 41′ 30″ N lat. and in 19° 45′ of longitude W from the meridian of Paris. It is only an inſulated rock riſing to a great height in the ſea, and at the diſtance of about a league and a quarter from the neareſt land. It is in the middle of that bay which is formed between Cape Verd, and the ſouthern continuation of the African coaſt. It is ſcarce ſixty acres in extent, incapable of culture, and deſtitute of rivers. Proviſions for the people of the ſettlement muſt be entirely brought from Europe, or procured from the continent of Africa. Wood is alſo, by permiſſion of the native princes, to be brought from that continent. With proper care, indeed, the water which filtrates from the rocks might be collected, ſo as to form a conſtant and ample ſupply of this article for the uſe ot the inhabitants.

The iſle enjoys, however, by its ſituation, many advantages. Its road is at all times ſecure for ſhipping. The iſle is well fitted to protect the ſlave trade, to ſerve as an emporium for this branch of traffic, to afford convenience for reparation and refreſhment to French ſhipping on the African coaſt. The journey by land between Goree and Senegal does not exceed 60 leagues; by ſea the voyage is only forty leagues.

This iſle had formerly the name of Barſaguiche; it was then a dependency of Cape Verd. King Beiam ceded it, in the year 1617, to the Dutch; who fortified it, and named it after a town in Holland, Goree. The Engliſh took it from the Dutch in 1663. Admiral Ruyter, however, retook it the year following. Three years after, it was taken by count D'Etrees with a French ſquadron. It remained in the poſſeſſion of the French till 1758. It was then taken by the Engliſh. It was reſtored to the French by the peace of Paris, in 1763. It was again taken by the Britiſh in 1779, and again reſtored to the French in 1783. With Goree, the French recovered on the continent their factories of Ruffiſque, Portudal, Joal, Salum, and Albreda. —Ruffiſque was afterward deſerted, as being too near to the iſle of Goree. Portudal is held under the king of Baol. Millet, butter, and eggs in abundance, with about 120 ſlaves annually, are thence obtained. Joal, a village at about 120 leagues diſtant from Goree, ſupplies rice, cattle, and fowls in great plenty. The territory around it is rich and fertile. It affords alſo about 100 ſlaves annually, ſome green leather, wax, and ivory. The river Salum runs ſouth of the territory which comprehends our factory at Joal. Cahone, the capital of the kingdom of Bourſalum, ſtands on that river, at the diſtance of about forty leagues inland. Cattle are procured there in great quantity, and at a very low price. It is alſo one of the marts to which the Mandingoes bring gold, ivory, and ſlaves from the eaſtern parts of Africa. There cannot be found a better ſtation for a factory. The kingdom of Bar meets the confines of Bourſalum at the north and the eaſt ſides; the ſea forms its weſtern boundary; its ſouthern boundary is the river Gambia. The French factory of Albreda is ſituate in the kingdom of Bar, on the north bank of the Gambia river, and at about eight leagues diſtance from its mouth. The Engliſh have near it their ſettlement of Fort James, to which they have drawn all the trade.

The Gambia river has its ſource at a very great diſtance inland. At its mouth it is about two leagues broad; and the contraction of its breadth, as you advance further upward, is but very ſlow and gradual. The Engliſh Fort James ſtands on an iſlet in this river, at ten leagues diſtance from the ſea. It divides the channel of the river into two paſſages, in either of which a ſixty gun ſhip may be at anchor. A forty gun frigate can advance up this river above Eropina,

which is ſeventy leagues inland from the river's mouth. Barks of 120 tons burthen can proceed to Fatenda, which is 100 leagues higher. In the rainy ſeaſon, the current of the Gambia is ſo rapid, that no perſon can ſail up it. It is between September and July that this voyage is always to be performed. The banks are on both ſides occupied by hordes of negroes. The Engliſh have many factories upon it; and cargoes are always in readineſs for the ſhips which come up the river. The Mandingoes reſort thither in great numbers. They bring for ſale, gold, ivory, and ſlaves purchaſed in the remote interior parts of Africa. The eſtabliſhments of the Britiſh on this river are of no conſiderable ſtrength. They have no troops, except at James' fort, a place of ſo little ſtrength, that its batteries might be at any time ſilenced by a fifty gun ſhip. To enhance its diſadvantages, it is always dependent on the good will of the natives for the ſupply of wood, water, and proviſions. Before the war of 1778, the French might have extended their trade to the Gambia; but the excluſive poſſeſſion of that river and of Fort James was warranted to the Britiſh by the tenth article of the treaty of Verſailles; and the French trade at Albreda cannot, therefore, be continued otherwiſe than by inland intercourſe. We pay to the king of Bar, cuſtoms to the ſmall amount of about 35l ſterling, a year, for the liberty of maintaining our factory of Albreda within his territories.

As to the iſle of Goree, if carefully fortified, and furniſhed with ſtores of ammunition and proviſions; if it had two ſhips of war conſtantly cruizing in theſe latitudes to protect our trade; if thoſe who ſend out adventures would make the cargoes ſuitable to the natural demands of the country, and all the articles of good quality; if they would entruſt thoſe cargoes to the care of none but perſons of integrity and due experience; and if, finally, their veſſels were built more for the voyage than for the port; then might France trade to advantage with this part of Africa.

A factory was, in the beginning of the year 1785, eſtabliſhed by the French nation on the iſle of Gambia, in the Sierra Leone river. The ground was purchaſed from Panabourè, ſovereign and proprietor of the iſle, on condition of an annual payment of goods to the value of 100 bars of iron, and of the payment of fifteen bars, as the cuſtoms to that prince for every merchant-ſhip coming there to trade. A fort was immediately conſtructed, conſiſting of a battery of twelve cannon. A magazine to contain the king's ſtores was placed on the right of the battery: on the left were barracks for the reception of the troops: at the diſtance of a few hundred paces backward, was a ditch for the exterior defence. The iſle of Gambia was choſen by the French, in preference to the iſle of Loſs, becauſe, on this laſt, the Britiſh had already an eſtabliſhment. One thing peculiarly unfortunate for this factory is, that there is not, in the whole iſle, more than ſix acres of ground ſuſceptible of uſeful cultivation. The reſt is an unhealthy moraſs. The trade in African commodities is in wax and ſlaves. The Sierra Leone is a noble river. The beſt time for ſhips to enter it is in January and February. In May, rains ſet in; and the climate becomes exceedingly unhealthy. At the deſire of the king of Gambia, I have brought his ſon with me to France. His name is Pedro; and after receiving education in this country he is to return to his father. [This young man, after ſpending two years at Breſt, returned in 1787 to his father. He was ſent back to finiſh his education in France. He returned finally home in 1790. His arrival was celebrated by rejoicings, amid which, the negro village, his father's capital, was accidentally burnt to the ground.]

A new Method of ſeparating SILVER *alloyed with* COPPER *in* BILLON.

By C. NAPIONE.

METALLURGISTS well know that argentiferous copper, which does not contain half its weight in ſilver at leaſt, cannot be ſubjected to cupellation. In that caſe, recourſe is had to an operation, called liquation, with lead; but, unhappily, it is attended with inconveniences which in many caſes render it impracticable.

To extract ſilver from copper completely, in one liquation, practice has ſhown in the founderies where this operation is performed on a large ſcale on black copper, that in a quintal of the latter there muſt be at leaſt ſeventy or eighty pounds of copper, and more than eight or nine ounces of ſilver; and in this caſe the proportion of lead to the copper ought to be eleven parts of the former and three of the latter.

But as in billon (baſe) money the ſilver generally forms from one-twelfth to one-fourth of alloy, and ſometimes more, it is evident that ſeveral liquations muſt be repeated to impoveriſh the copper; for though in the firſt the lead carries with it a great deal of ſilver, it is not always in the ſame proportion, and the latter portions are more difficult to be extracted.

If we ſuppoſe that four ſucceſſive liquations are ſufficient to extract the ſilver of our billon money, which is of the quality of three deniers ten grains, eſtimating it at the loweſt, we ſhould have fifty-five livres for the whole expence of the ſeparation for each quintal of that money.

If the proceſs of the celebrated Cramer, of which M. Jars has given a ſhort account in the third volume of his Voyages Metallurgiques, can be attended with any advantage, it would, however, be of very little uſe to us.

C. Napioné, knowing that ſulphur has a greater affinity for copper than for ſilver, conceived the idea of reducing into ſcoriæ a large quantity of rich copper by combining it directly with ſulphur, in the hope of obtaining, by this kind of dry parting, the ſilver concentrated in a portion of the copper ſo as to be able to refine it immediately by cupellation, and to obtain at the ſame time ſcoriæ, leſs rich, for amalgamation.

The experiments which he relates prove that he was not deceived in his expectation. He took a pound and ſix ounces of argentiferous copper of the quality of $3\frac{1}{2}$ deniers the marc, and, having fuſed it in a crucible, mixed with it two ounces of ſulphur. Having ſeparated the matte or ſcoriæ, he repeated the ſame operation twice on the cupreous regulus; and after the three operations he obtained one pound five ounces and 22 deniers of matte, and four ounces 16 deniers and 12 grains of metallic regulus, which, though pretty ductile, ſplit at the edges when flattened with the hammer.

The trial made on mattes or ſcoriæ of three meltings united, ſhowed that they contained only 11 pounds three ounces of ſilver in the docimaſtic quintal, and the quality of the regulus was ſeven deniers 16 grains per marc; a quality at which it may be ſubjected to cupellation without any other proceſs.

After having well pulverized the mattes, and mixed with them muriate of ſoda in the proportion of 12 to 100, and the ſame quantity of quicklime, and after calcining it for four hours under a muffle, he amalgamated the mixture. The reſult of this amalgamation and of a ſubſequent one procured him only a very ſmall quantity of ſilver. He again calcined it, for three hours and a half, with one-tenth muriate of ſoda; and after three calcinations of the ſame kind under the ſame circumſtances, and three alternate amalgamations, his mattes contained no more than one ounce and 18 deniers of ſilver per quintal.

C. Napioné obſerves, that if his firſt calcination had been carried further,

he could have extracted the whole of the silver in three amalgamations. Having repeated, indeed, the same operation at the mint, employing the same proportion of sulphur, he was able, after three successive calcinations and three amalgamations, to obtain a residuum, which contained only an ounce and a half of silver per quintal. The silver extracted on this occasion was of the quality of 11 deniers and 22 grains. It was of importance, after this last trial, to undertake the experiments on a great scale.

On a hearth prepared with light brasque*, as for the refining of common copper, and which C. Napione had placed in a situation where there was a current of air, a basin was dug capable of containing about a quintal and a half of melted matter: the chimney was disposed in such a manner, that a proper degree of heat could be given to the basin and the fused metal. The brasque being very dry, a quintal of our billon money was fused in the basin through charcoal; and the charcoal being then removed from the top, a workman, furnished with a long iron spoon, threw sulphur on the melted mass, while another workman stirred the matter with a clay rod. In proportion as sulphuret of copper was formed, the surface of the mass was sprinkled with a brush dipped in water, and another workman, with an iron fork, removed in plates the mattes as they became fixed. There was obtained in this manner, after the operation, a cupreous button, and mattes nearly in the same proportion, and containing the same quantity of silver, as in the trials on a small scale. A quintal and a half of matter was thus fused at once, and it is probable that a greater quantity might be fused in the same manner.

The mattes, well pulverized, were subjected to calcination with muriate of soda and lime in a cupelling furnace arranged for that purpose.

After a calcination of ten hours, the matter was amalgamated in one of those mills commonly used in the mint for extracting silver and gold from the refuse of different operations. After the first amalgamation, which lasted only 14 hours, the third part of the silver contained in the oxide was extracted; and, as it is in the second amalgamation that the greater part of the silver is attacked by the mercury, we may conclude, without any danger of being deceived, that three amalgamations will be more than sufficient to extract, on a large scale, the whole silver of the mattes.

These mills, which contain from twenty-six to thirty pounds of matter, may be put in action, to the number of forty, by a single water-wheel: beside this advantage, their capacity may be augmented.

By the process of C. Napione, not only silver but the gold united with it may be extracted from argentiferous copper; and this may be done by one liquation.

As the water of the washing of the first amalgamation contains a great deal of sulphate of copper, the metal may be extracted from it by cementation with iron, or by precipitating it by carbonate of potash, which will produce cupreous carbonate of a bright green colour. The same water afterward evaporated gives sulphate of soda in abundance.

The water of the second washing and the third amalgamation is colourless; and there may be extracted from it, with advantage, by evaporation, muriate and carbonate of soda.

The oxide of copper freed from the silver mey be sent to the smelting-houses at the copper-mines to be reduced along with the ores, and refined by the common method.

C. Napione, having calculated the expence necessary for his process when executed on a large scale, concludes that, in the present circumstances, it will never amount to a fifth part of that which refining by common liquation requires.

* A lining or coating of a mixture of clay and pounded charcoal.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

THE RETURN OF PEACE.

LONG exil'd from yon ſea-girt ſhore
Ye ſons of Britain! lo! I come—
Again my ample joys to pour,
Again to bleſs my native home;
In tuneful praiſe
Your voices raiſe,
And fill with triumph yon celeſtial dome.
No more the thund'ring cannons wake
The ſound of death, the cry of pain;—
No more the warrior's boſom ſhake,
But harmleſs lie remov'd from ſlaughter's plain.

Thro' ten long years I've wander'd far,
Courting in vain Europa's arms;
Driv'n by the potent god of war
From ſcenes of liveliеſt, faireſt charms.
With heavy heart
Compell'd to part
With plains I lov'd, I fled the dire alarms—
The home which I had bleſs'd with joy,
Too ſoon in burning ruins lay;
Too ſoon man's ſweeteſt, beſt employ,
Was dealing ſorrows round, and dread diſmay!

On Nile's fair banks, where beauties grow,
Sometime I reſted, muſing ſad
On blood-ſtain'd fields, and piles of woe,
On human brows in fury clad.
When lo!—mine ear
Own'd tumults near,
For Gaul's fierce warriors were with conqueſt mad.
There unmoleſted I had ſtray'd,
Thro' buſy ſcenes and ſilent groves;
With many a fond and ſprightly maid,
With all the cheerful train of ſmiling loves.

There had I pluck'd the blooming flow'r,
There had I gather'd plenty's ſtore,
And ſtill had many a happy hour
To Egypt's favour'd natives bore,
But for thoſe bands,
From diſtant lands,
Which broke unjuſtly on a guiltleſs ſhore.
But Britain's ſons with nobleſt zeal,
Have ſet the injur'd natives free;
Have taught Gaul's ſavage heart to feel
The powers of juſtice and humanity.—

Till years and ages be no more,
Britain ſhall boaſt her Nelſon's fame;
Till years and ages be no more,
Gaul ſhall remember Nelſon's name.—
And Britain's voice
Shall long rejoice,
Her Abercromb.e's conqueſt to proclaim.
Bravely the vet'ran hero fought!
Bravely he fell on glory's plain!
His blood the rights of nations bought,
His death reſtores my favourite iſle again.

Then ceaſe, ye weeping train, from tears,
Fond mother quit the mournful urn;
Sweet orphan leave thy early fears,
Suppreſs thy griefs, at my return.
Let joy each ſoul
Each heart controul,
Let ev'ry brow the ſmile of triumph learn.
'Tis hard to loſe an only child,
The hope and comfort of old age;
Slain by the ſword of fury wild,
While uſeleſs enmities their arms engage.
'Tis hard to loſe a father's care,
When moſt 'tis wanted, moſt deplor'd,
But grieving will not grief repair,
Nor joys by weeping be reſtor'd.—
Then ceaſe your tears,
Your plaints, your fears,
And let your joyous voice to Heaven be pour'd.
I'm come misfortune's wound to heal,
To dry the tears of want and grief,
To break the death-inflicting ſteel,
And bring to war-worn breaſt the wiſh'd relief.—

Riſe, riſe, ye ſons of poverty,
At length diſmiſs the clouded brow,
To joys ariſe from terrors free,
For I am come to bleſs you now.
Paſs, paſs the fair day
In pleaſures away,
Upon the green turf, and under the bough.
To future hopes awake, awake,
And cheerly labour's taſk renew,
With gratitude the gift partake,
Forget the evil, and the good purſue.—

Now, now, ye huſbandmen, prepare
With fearleſs hearts your care to ply,
Now whiſtling o'er the buſy ſhare
The willing lands with ſeed ſupply.
Now quaff the bright ale
With humorous tale,
All ſorrows, and cares, and terrors defy.—
With the ſprightly maid and fair,
When the moon glitters on the ſpray;
The merry, merry dance prepare,
And lightly, happily trip it away.—

Ye ſons of Commerce—Britain's pride!
For diſtant lands unfurl the ſail,
And fearleſs ſtem the foaming tide,
Nor doubt the mild propitious gale.
Rich India's ſhore
Haſte, haſte, explore,
And various climes with Britiſh glory hail.

From Ganges' vaſt extenſive wave,
To Orellana's rapid tide,
Where the harmleſs natives lave,
Go, ſcatter mercy, Britons' nobleſt pride.

At home, ye ſons of Faction, ceaſe
From party feuds—unworthy war,—
Let all be calm, let all be peace,
Since Mars has curb'd his fiery car.—
In love unite,
In joy delight,
For round you now ſhines concord's happy ſtar.
Strengthen your country's envied laws,
Be juſt, be powerful, and free,
But to that great Eternal Cauſe
With grateful praiſe firſt bend the ſuppliant knee.

R. S.—JUVENIS.

THYRSIS, LYCIDAS, and MENALCAS.

A PASTORAL.

THYRSIS.

HAIL, fellow ſhepherds, hail this lovely morn
Whoſe op'ning rays diſcloſe the glitt'ring thorn!
Hail the fair ſun, which lifts its glowing head
O'er yonder hills with ſparing verdure ſpread!
Hail Nature riſing from her tranquil ſleep,
While ſweeteſt murmurs o'er her boſom creep!
Mark! how yon foreſt waves its curling train,
Where mildeſt zephyrs hold their ſportive reign!
Liſt! what ſweet notes yon ſoaring warbler yields
Thro' air's wide ſpace, enliv'ning nature's fields,
Calling the lazy ruſtic from his bed,
O'er willing lands the uſeful aid to ſpread,
Or waiting flocks to lead with watchful care
To hills and vallies clad with ample fare.
Hail, fellow ſhepherds, hail this welcome light!
To me bleſt dawn of happieſt delight!
On every brow let joy and tranſport ſhine!
To day fair Paſtorella will be mine!—

LYCIDAS.

Thyrſis, no more thy thoughts on bliſs employ,
Nor thus indulge in ſtrains of fancied joy.
The ſun oft glitters with a flatt'ring ray,
And ſeems to promiſe an unclouded day.
But ere it burn in its meridian height
Black ſtorms appear, and ſhut its cheering light,
Then the ſweet feather'd throng, whoſe warbling throats
Had early fill'd the air with ſprightlieſt notes,
Shut cloſe their wings beneath their leafy ſhed,
And ſilent wait, till the black clouds be fled.

THYRSIS.

O Lycidas, what mean thy words, which bear
Such dire portent? Sure ſome unlooked for care
Awaits my peace—O quick relieve the weight
That preſſes on my heart—unfold my fate,
And let me know the worſt.—

LYCIDAS.

Thyrſis, my friend,
It grieves me much thy faithful breaſt to rend
With news of direſt truth—But thou muſt hear
If I conceal the evils which are near—
Then oh! to peace for ever bid adieu,
For know—thy Paſtorella is untrue!—

THYRSIS.

'Tis falſe, 'tis falſe!—not ſo accurs'd my fate!
So true, ſo well no turtle loves its mate
As Paſtorella me—beneath yon ſhade
Of ſpreading elms by loving ſhepherds made,
While my lambs friſk'd in ſportive action near,
I pour'd my wiſh in Paſtorella's ear.
Nor chid my fair, nor ſhunn'd my amorous lay,
But ſweetly yielding nam'd the nuptial day.

LYCIDAS.

So the ſoft zephyr cheers us in the morn,
But ere 'tis noon the lov'd deceiver's gone.
Believe me, Thyrſis, in the ſilent bow'r
O'erhung with many an amaranthine flow'r,
Near to where Damon, richeſt of the ſwains,
Feeds his fair flocks, the pride of Dura's plains,
When the thick dews on ev'ning's boſom fell,
And nature's warblers ſought their ſhady cell,
When flocks were winding to their nightly ſhed,
And buſy bells their varied tinklings ſpread,
I ſaw thy fair one, as I lay unſeen
Behind an elm with ivy mantle green,
Reclining gently on her Damon's breaſt
While fondeſt thoughts each glowing face expreſſed.

Now Damon to her lips the kiſs applied,
While ſhe the freedom chid, or ſeem'd to chide.
Again he preſſed her with his circling arms,
And hung with rapture o'er her glowing charms.
I overheard, while roſe the bluſhing ſhame,
Her falt'ring tongue confeſs the mutual flame.
And then (my boſom ſilent rage expreſs'd
To ſee ſuch perfidy ſo ſweetly dreſt)
I heard her ſpeak of thee with ſuch diſdain
That ſcarce I could from open curſe refrain.
Then Damon laughed, to think how well her part
She'd play'd, and laughing preſs'd her to his heart.
All this I ſaw and heard—and now diſcloſe
To thy fond heart theſe unexpected woes.

THYRSIS.

My friend, thy words the ſaddeſt tale impart
That ever pierc'd a hapleſs ſhepherd's heart.
My Paſtorella falſe!—my love untrue!—
Then all my fancied happineſs adieu.—
'Tis wealth, curs'd wealth, has won my love from me,
And I no more, ſweet maid, muſt gaze on thee.
Why could'ſt thou ſport with love ſo true as mine?
Why trifle with a heart, more true than thine?
Go then, unkind! on Damon's breaſt repoſe,
And laugh, if laughing pleaſe, at Thyrſis' woes.
May you be bleſt—love ſtill that wiſh ſupplies—
Nor hear the mournful knell, when Thyrſis dies.—
He to ſome deſart ſpot, ſome rugged cave,
Will fly forlorn and ſeek a diſtant grave—
No more his hands will claſp the ſhepherd's crook,
No more he'll ſit beſide the gurgling brook,
And tune his reed to Paſtorella's praiſe,
No more he'll fill the air with amorous lays.
With Paſtorella's name his ſong ſhall teem,
But not to praiſe, to cenſure be its theme—
Yet ha!—can one who owns ſo true a flame,
E'er caſt reproach on Paſtorella's name.
Ah, no!—be his to cenſure fate alone,
To ſound her praiſes in his dying groan.
Farewell my friends, to other climes I go,
Where never human voice is heard to flow,
Where lions roar, and ſavage tigers prowl,
Where wolves for prey thro' deſart foreſts howl.
Farewell, my friends, O may you never prove
The pangs which flow from unrequited love.

MENALCAS.

Stay, Thyrſis, ſtay—Menalcas can impart
The trueſt comfort to thy faithful heart.
All thou haſt heard is falſe! the maid is true!
Is faithful ſtill, and loves but only you—
But now, I met her on the neighb'ring lawn,
As fair and blooming as the bluſhing morn.
And ſee! ſhe comes with haſty ſtep and light,
O'er yonder verdant plain to bleſs thy ſight.
O Lycidas, awhile to me attend,
And hear the counſel of an aged friend.
If e'er thou can conſole the aching breaſt,
Show then thy readineſs to give it reſt.
But this remember—act the better part—
And never trifle with a feeling heart.

R. S.—JUVENIS.

ADDRESS TO SIR SYDNEY SMYTH.

WHILE Mem'ry holds her ſeat in Britain's iſle,
And its brave ſons, with an exulting ſmile,
Their dead and living heroes' actions ſcan;
Actions, whoſe grandeur fill the mind of man
With wonder and amaze; thy honour'd name
Shines forth, great Sydney, with ſuperior fame.
Ev'n from that land which Indus' waters lave,
To where old Ocean rolls his furtheſt wave;
From north to ſouth; from Ruſſia's frozen bound
To Afric's Cape thy glorious deeds reſound.
When Gallia's chief, with fierce ambition fir'd,
The conqueſt of the Egyptian ſhores deſir'd,
Heroically brave, didſt thou defeat
His high raiſed hopes, and force him to retreat;
From Acre's walls indignant bend his way,
While thou waſt hail'd the conqueror of the day—
Ages unborn ſhall tell the glorious tale,
And prove (ſince thy example cannot fail
To rouſe each breaſt its country's rights to ſhield)
Themſelves, like thee, the maſters of the field.

Bruton-ſtreet. G. B.

DEFINITIVE TREATY *of* PEACE, *between the* French Republic, *his Majeſty the King of* Spain *and the* Indies, *and the* Batavian Republic, *on the one Part; and his Majeſty, the King of the United Kingdom of* Great Britain *and* Ireland, *on the other Part.*

[From the French *.]

THE firſt conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, and his majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, being equally animated with a deſire to put an end to the calamities of war, have laid the foundation of peace, by the preliminary articles which were ſigned in London, the 9th Vendemaire, year 10 (the 1ſt of October 1801.) And as by the 15th article of the preliminaries it has been agreed on, 'that plenipotentiaries ſhould be named on the part of each government, who ſhould repair to Amiens, and there proceed to arrange a definitive treaty, in concert with the allies of the contracting powers'—The firſt conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, has named as plenipotentiary the citizen Joſeph Bonaparte, counſellor of ſtate. His majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland has named the marquis Cornwallis, knight of the moſt noble order of the garter, one of his majeſty's privy-council, general of his majeſty's army, &c. His majeſty the king of Spain and the Indies, and the government of the Batavian republic, have appointed the following plenipotentiaries, to wit, his catholic majeſty has named don Joſeph Nicolas d'Azara, his counſellor of ſtate, grand croſs of the order of Charles III, ambaſſador extraordinary of his majeſty to the French republic, &c. And the government of the Batavian republic has named Roger Jean Schimmelpenninck its ambaſſador extraordinary to the French republic, &c. Which ſaid plenipotentiaries having duly communicated to each other their reſpective powers, which are tranſcribed at the concluſion of the preſent treaty, have agreed upon the following articles:—

Article I. There ſhall be peace, friendſhip, and good underſtanding between the French republic, his majeſty the king of Spain, his heirs and ſucceſſors, and the Batavian republic on the one part, and his majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, his heirs and ſucceſſors, on the other part. The contracting parties ſhall uſe their utmoſt efforts to preſerve a perfect harmony between their reſpective countries, without permitting any act of hoſtility whatever, by ſea or by land, for any cauſe, or under any pretext. They ſhall carefully avoid every thing which might for the future diſturb the happy union now re-eſtabliſhed between them, and ſhall not give any ſuccour or protection, directly or indirectly, to thoſe who would wiſh to injure any one of them.

II. All the priſoners made on one ſide and the other, as well by land as by ſea, and the hoſtages carried off or delivered up during the war, and up to the preſent day, ſhall be reſtored without ranſom, in ſix weeks at the lateſt, to be reckoned from the day when the ratifications of the preſent treaty are exchanged, and on paying the debts which they ſhall have contracted during their captivity. Each of the contracting parties ſhall reſpectively diſcharge the advances that ſhall have been made by any of the contracting parties for the ſupport and maintenance of priſoners in the countries where they have been detained. There ſhall be appointed by mutual conſent for this purpoſe a commiſſion, ſpecially empowered to aſcertain and determine the compenſation which may be due to any one of the contracting parties. The time and the place ſhall likewiſe be fixed by mutual conſent for the meeting of the commiſſioners, who ſhall be entruſted with the execution of this article, and who ſhall take into account, not only the expences incurred on account of the priſoners of the reſpective nations, but likewiſe on account of the foreign troops, who, before being taken, were in the pay, and at the diſpoſal of one of the contracting parties.

III. His Britannic majeſty reſtores to the French republic and its allies, viz. his Catholic majeſty and the Batavian repub-

* The Definitive Treaty not being yet publiſhed by authority, we are therefore obliged to give the French copy, to enable our readers to form their opinion on the proceedings in parliament relative to the articles of the definitive treaty of peace.

lic, all the poſſeſſions and colonies which reſpectively belonged to them, and which have been either occupied or conquered by the Britiſh forces during the courſe of the preſent war, with the exception of the iſland of Trinidad and the Dutch poſſeſſions in the iſland of Ceylon.

IV. His Catholic majeſty cedes and guarantees in full property and ſovereignty the iſland of Trinidad to his Britannic majeſty.

V. The Batavian republic cedes and guarantees in full property and ſovereignty to his Britannic majeſty all the poſſeſſions and eſtabliſhments in the iſland of Ceylon, which previous to the war belonged to the republic of the United Provinces, or to the Dutch Eaſt India company.

VI. The port of the Cape of Good Hope remains to the Batavian republic in full ſovereignty, in the ſame manner as it did previous to the war. The ſhips of every kind belonging to the other contracting parties ſhall be allowed to enter the ſaid port, and there to purchaſe what proviſions they may ſtand in need of, as heretofore, without being liable to pay any other impoſts than ſuch as the Batavian republic compels the ſhips of its own nation to pay.

VII. The territories and poſſeſſions of her moſt faithful majeſty are maintained in their integrity, ſuch as they were antecedent to the war. However, the boundaries of French and Portugueſe Guiana are fixed by the river Arawari, which empties itſelf into the ocean above Cape North, near the iſlands Nuovo and Penetentia, about a degree and a third of north latitude. Theſe boundaries ſhall run along the river Arawari, from its mouth the moſt diſtant from Cape North to its ſource, and afterward on a right line, drawn from that ſource, to the Rio-Branto toward the weſt. In conſequence, the northern bank of the river Arawari, from its diſtant mouth to its ſource, and the territories that lie to the north of the line of the boundaries laid down as above, ſhall belong in full ſovereignty to the French republic. The ſouthern bank of the ſaid river, from the ſame mouth, and all the territories to the ſouth of the ſaid line, ſhall belong to her moſt faithful majeſty. The navigation of the river Arawari, along the whole of its courſe, ſhall be common to both nations. The arrangements which have been agreed upon between the courts of Madrid and Liſbon, reſpecting the ſettlement of their boundaries in Europe, ſhall nevertheleſs be adhered to, conformably to the ſtipulations of the treaty of Badajos.

VIII. The territories, poſſeſſions, and rights of the ſublime Porte, are maintained in their integrity, as they were before the war.

IX. The republic of the Seven Iſlands is recogniſed.

X. The iſlands of Malta, Gozo, and Comino, ſhall be reſtored to the order of St. John of Jeruſalem, to be held on the ſame conditions on which it poſſeſſed them before the war, and under the following ſtipulations:—

1. The knights of the order, whoſe tongues ſhall continue to ſubſiſt, after the exchange of the ratification of the preſent treaty, are invited to return to Malta, as ſoon as the exchange ſhall have taken place. They will there form a general chapter, and proceed to the election of a grand maſter, choſen from among the natives of the nations which preſerve their tongues, unleſs that election has been already made ſince the exchange of the preliminaries. It is underſtood that an election made ſubſequent to that epoch, ſhall alone be conſidered valid, to the excluſion of any other that may have taken place at any period prior to that epoch.

2. The governments of the French republic and of Great Britain, deſiring to place the order and iſland of Malta in a ſtate of entire independence with reſpect to them, agree that there ſhall not be in future either a French or Engliſh tongue; and that no individual belonging to either the one or other of theſe powers ſhall be admitted into the order.

3. There ſhall be eſtabliſhed a Malteſe tongue, which ſhall be ſupported by the territorial revenues, and commercial duties of the iſland. This tongue ſhall have its peculiar dignities, an eſtabliſhment and an hotel. Proofs of nobility ſhall not be neceſſary for the admiſſion of knights of this tongue; and they ſhall be moreover admiſſible to all offices, and ſhall enjoy all privileges in the ſame manner as the knights of the other tongues. At leaſt half of the municipal, adminiſtrative, civil, judicial, and other employments depending on the government, ſhall be filled by inhabitants of the iſlands of Malta, Gozo, and Comino.

4. The forces of his Britannic majeſty ſhall evacuate the iſland, and its dependencies, within three months from the exchange of the ratifications, or ſooner if poſſible. At that epoch it ſhall be given up to the order in its preſent ſtate, provid-

ed the grand maſter, or commiſſaries, fully authorized according to the ſtatutes of the order, ſhall be in the iſland to take poſſeſſion, and that the force which is to be provided by his Sicilian majeſty, as is hereafter ſtipulated, ſhall have arrived there.

5. One half of the garriſon, at leaſt, ſhall be always compoſed of native Malteſe; for the remainder the order may levy recruits in thoſe countries only where tongues continue to be retained. The Malteſe troops ſhall have Malteſe officers. The commander in chief of the garriſon, as well as the nomination of the officers, ſhall pertain to the grand maſter, and this right he cannot reſign even temporarily; except in favour of a knight, and in concurrence with the advice of the council of the order.

6. The independence of the iſles of Malta, of Gozo, and Comino, as well as the preſent arrangement, ſhall be placed under the protection and guarantee of France, Great Britain, Auſtria, Spain, Ruſſia, and Pruſſia.

7. The neutrality of the order and of the iſland of Malta, with its dependencies, is proclaimed.

8. The ports of Malta ſhall be opened to the commerce and the navigation of all nations, who ſhall there pay equal and moderate duties: theſe duties ſhall be applied to the ſupport of the Malteſe tongue, as ſpecified in paragraph 3, to that of the civil, and military eſtabliſhments of the iſland, as well as to that of a general Lazaret, open to all flags.

9. The ſtates of Barbary are excepted from the conditions of the two preceding paragraphs, until by means of an arrangement to be procured by the contracting parties, the ſyſtem of hoſtilities, which ſubſiſts between the ſtates of Barbary, and the order of St. John, or the powers poſſeſſing tongues, or concurring in the compoſition of the order, ſhall have ceaſed.

10. The order ſhall be governed, both with reſpect to ſpiritual and temporal affairs, by the ſame ſtatutes, which were in force when the knights left the iſle, except in as far as they are abrogated by the preſent treaty.

11. The regulations contained in the paragraphs 3, 5, 7, 8, and 10, ſhall be converted into laws and perpetual ſtatutes of the order, in the cuſtomary manner; and the grand maſter, or, if he ſhall not be in the iſland at the time of its reſtoration to the order, his repreſentative, as well as his ſucceſſors, ſhall be bound to take an oath for the punctual obſervance of them.

12. His Sicilian majeſty ſhall be invited to furniſh two thouſand men, natives of his ſtates, to garriſon the different fortreſſes of the ſaid iſlands. That force ſhall remain one year, to bear date from their reſtitution to the knights; and if, at the expiration of this term, the order ſhould not have raiſed a force ſufficient, in the judgment of the guaranteeing powers, to garriſon the iſland and its dependencies, ſuch as is ſpecified in paragraph 5, the Neapolitan troops ſhall continue there until they ſhall be replaced by another force deemed ſufficient by the ſaid powers.

13. The different powers deſignated in the 6th paragraph, to wit, France, Great Britain, Auſtria, Spain, Ruſſia, and Pruſſia, ſhall be invited to accede to the preſent ſtipulations.

XI. The French troops ſhall evacuate the kingdom of Naples and the Roman ſtates; the Engliſh forces ſhall alſo evacuate Porto Ferrajo, and generally all the ports and iſlands that they occupy in the Mediterranean, or the Adriatic.

XII. The evacuations, ceſſions, and reſtitutions ſtipulated by the preſent treaty, ſhall be executed in Europe within a month, on the continent and ſeas of America and Africa in three months, on the continent and ſeas of Aſia, within ſix months after the ratification of the preſent definitive treaty, except in caſe of ſpecial reſervation.

XIII. In all caſes of reſtitution agreed upon by the preſent treaty, the fortifications ſhall be reſtored in the condition they were in at the time of ſigning the preliminaries; and all the works which ſhall have been conſtructed ſince their occupation, ſhall remain untouched. It is agreed beſides, that in all the ſtipulated caſes of ceſſions, there ſhall be allowed to the inhabitants, of whatever rank or nation, a term of three years, reckoning from the notification of the preſent treaty, to diſpoſe of all their property and effects, whether acquired or poſſeſſed by them before, or during the continuance of the preſent war; during which term of three years they ſhall have free and entire liberty to exerciſe their religion, and to enjoy their fortunes. The ſame privileges are granted in the countries reſtored, to all perſons, whether inhabitants or not, who ſhall have formed any eſtabliſhments there, during the time that theſe countries were in the poſſeſſion of Great Britain. As to the inhabitants of the countries reſtored or ceded, it is hereby agreed, that no perſon ſhall, under any pretence, be proſecuted, diſturbed, or moleſted, either in

perſon or property, on account of his political conduct or opinion, or for his attachment to any of the contracting parties, or on any account whatever, except for debts contracted with individuals, or for acts ſubſequent to the preſent treaty.

XIV. All the ſequeſtrations laid on either ſide on funds, revenues, and credits, of what nature ſoever they may be, belonging to any of the contracting powers, or to their citizens and ſubjects, ſhall be taken off immediately after the ſignature of this definitive treaty. The deciſion of all claims among the individuals of the reſpective nations, for debts, property, effects, or rights, of any nature whatſoever, which ſhould, according to received uſages, and the law of nations, be preferred at the epoch of the peace, ſhall be referred to the competent tribunals, and in thoſe caſes ſpeedy and complete juſtice ſhall be done in the countries wherein thoſe claims ſhall be reſpectively preferred.

XV. The fiſheries on the coaſts of Newfoundland, and of the adjacent iſlands, and in the gulf of St. Laurence, are placed on the ſame footing as they were before the war. The French fiſhermen of Newfoundland, and the inhabitants of the iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſhall have liberty to cut ſuch wood as may be neceſſary for them in the bays of Fortune and Deſpair, during one year, reckoning from the ratification of the preſent treaty.

XVI. To prevent all ground of complaint and diſpute which might ariſe on account of captures which may have been made at ſea ſubſequent to the ſigning of the preliminaries, it is reciprocally agreed that the ſhips and property which may have been taken in the Channel, and in the North Seas, after a ſpace of twelve days reckoning from the exchange of the ratifications of the preliminary articles, ſhall be reſtored on both ſides; that the term ſhall be one month from the Channel and the North Seas, as far as the Canary Iſlands, incluſively, as well in the ocean as in the Mediterranean; two months from the Canary Iſlands to the equator; and finally, five months in all the other parts of the world, without any further exception, or diſtinction of time or place.

XVII. The ambaſſadors, miniſters, and the agents of the contracting powers, ſhall enjoy reſpectively in the ſtates of the ſaid powers the ſame rank, privileges, prerogatives, and immunities which were enjoyed before the war by agents of the ſame claſs.

XVIII. The branch of the houſe of Naſſau, which was eſtabliſhed in the *ci-devant* republic of the United Provinces, now the Batavian republic, having experienced ſome loſſes both in private property and in conſequence of the change of conſtitution adopted in that country, there ſhall be obtained for them a ſuitable compenſation for the ſaid loſſes.

XIX. The preſent definitive treaty of peace is declared common to the ſublime Ottoman Porte, the ally of his Britannic majeſty; and the ſublime Porte ſhall be invited to tranſmit its act of acceſſion, as ſoon as poſſible.

XX. It is agreed that the contracting parties, upon requiſitions made by them reſpectively, or by their miniſters, or officers duly authoriſed for that purpoſe, ſhall be bound to deliver up to juſtice perſons accuſed of murder, forgery, or fraudulent bankruptcy, committed within the juriſdiction of the requiring party, provided that this ſhall only be done in caſes in which the evidence of the crime ſhall be ſuch, that the laws of the place in which the accuſed perſon ſhall be diſcovered, would have authoriſed the detaining and bringing him to trial, had the offence been committed there. The expences of the arreſt, and carrying him back for trial, ſhall be defrayed by the party making the requiſition; but this article has no ſort of reference to crimes of murder, forgery, or fraudulent bankruptcy committed before the concluſion of this definitive treaty.

XXI. The contracting parties promiſe to obſerve ſincerely and faithfully all the articles contained in the preſent treaty, and will not ſuffer any ſort of contravention, direct or indirect, to be made to it by their reſpective citizens, or ſubjects; and the contracting parties guarantee, generally and reciprocally, all the ſtipulations of the preſent treaty.

XXII. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified by the contracting parties within the ſpace of thirty days, or ſooner, if poſſible, and the ratifications ſhall be exchanged in due form at Paris. In teſtimony whereof, we, the underſigned plenipotentiaries, have ſigned with our hands, and in virtue of our reſpective full powers, the preſent definitive treaty, cauſing it to be ſealed with our reſpective ſeals.

Done at Amiens, the 4th Germinal, in the year 10, (March 25, 1802.)

(Signed) BONAPARTE,
CORNWALLIS,
AZARA, and
SCHIMMELPENNINCK.

A correct copy, J. BONAPARTE.

Separate CONVENTION *entered into between the* French *and* Batavian *Plenipotentiaries.*

THE underſigned plenipotentiary of the French republic declares, conformably to exiſting ſtipulations between the French and Batavian republics, and in virtue of ſpecial inſtructions with which he is furniſhed to that effect on the part of his government, that it is underſtood that the indemnity ſtipulated in favour of the houſe of Naſſau in the 18th article of the preſent treaty ſhall not upon any account, or in any manner, be at the charge of the Batavian republic; the French government being guarantee to this effect toward the ſaid republic. The underſigned plenipotentiary of the Batavian republic, in the name of his government, accepts the above declaration, as explanatory of the aforeſaid 18th article of the definitive treaty, ſigned this day by the plenipotentiaries of the four contracting powers. The preſent act ſhall be preſented at the ratification of the two reſpective governments, and the ratifications exchanged in due form.

Done at Amiens, March 27.

(Signed) J. BONAPARTE,
R. J. SCHIMMELPENNINCK.

PARLIAMENTARY PROCEEDINGS *on the* DEFINITIVE TREATY *of* PEACE.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Thurſday, May 13.

Lord GRENVILLE moved the order of the day for the houſe to take into conſideration the Definitive Treaty.

His lordſhip then ſtated, that it had been imputed to thoſe noble lords, who diſapproved the terms of peace, that they wiſhed to renew the war, of which imputation, he totally denied the truth; and, on the contrary, he profeſſed not only his ſincere wiſh to maintain the peace, upon the principles and terms on which it had been concluded, however he might privately diſapprove thoſe terms; but that he alſo felt it the duty of parliament, as the treaty was finally ſigned by his majeſty, who, according to the principles of the conſtitution, had the privilege of making war and peace, to maintain the terms of this peace as inviolably as if they had been the moſt unexceptionable. But at the ſame time that he felt this neceſſity, he felt it equally his duty, as a member of the legiſlature, to call the attention of their lordſhips to thoſe ſeveral points of the treaty, on which he conceived the honour, the rights, and the intereſts of the Britiſh empire to be moſt materially involved. In order that they might ſee the critically awful ſituation in which this country was involved, and in order, by the diſcuſſion which ſhould take place this night, to warn thoſe miniſters, who ſhould hereafter be entruſted with the duty of negociating treaties of peace, of thoſe important conſiderations, to which it would be their indiſpenſable duty to pay the moſt cautious attentions, in order to avoid being cajoled into concluſions moſt materially injurious to the political and commercial intereſts of the empire. The noble lord having expatiated very much at length on this principle, proceeded to take a view of the definitive treaty, article by article, and argued, that much as he had diſapproved of the preliminaries of peace, formed as they were, under all exiſting circumſtances, there was infinitely more cauſe to reprobate the definitive treaty concluded as it was, according to the admiſſion of the noble ſecretary of ſtate oppoſite to him (lord Pelham) under circumſtances of new aggrandiſement on the part of France, which totally changed the relative circumſtances of the two countries under which the preliminaries were ſigned, and were ſufficient to juſtify the ſervants of the crown in adviſing his majeſty to break off the treaty, and to recommence hoſtilities. The firſt point to which he particularly adverted, was the ſituation of the ſtadtholder, who had ſacrificed every thing for his attachment to Britiſh intereſt; but who, although apparently ſecured in due compenſation under an article in the preliminaries of peace, yet, under the concluſive article in the definitive treaty, was thrown ſolely upon the generoſity and good faith of the French government, under a looſe and indefinite ſtipulation that he ſhould be compenſated, but without any ſpecification as to the how? the where? or the when? The next obſervation was directed to the ſurrender of Malta, for which it was ſtipulated in the

preliminaries that its neutrality ſhould be guaranteed under the protection of a neutral power, and Ruſſia was the power alluded to; that its government was to be reſtored upon its former footing under the knights of St. John. But what was the concluſion under the definitive treaty? Why, that the protection of Ruſſia was withdrawn, and the iſland ſurrendered to a Neapolitan garriſon, which was in effect a ſurrender to France; and how was the reſtoration of the ancient government provided for? By official returns from Malta it appeared the revenues of the iſland for the ſupport of government amounted to no more than 8000l per annum, though the expences of the government amounted to 130,000. The deficiency was made op from lands and priories belonging to the order from different langues in various countries of Europe. Of theſe the priories of Provence alone paid 58,000l per annum, which were completely confiſcated. Thoſe in Spain paid 27,000l, for the confiſcation and ſale of which meaſures were actually taken. The remaining deficiency was paid by the priories in Lombardy and Piedmont, and the Ciſalpine republic, which were alſo to be confiſcated; ſo that out of the revenue of 130,000l, uſually devoted to the ſupport of the Malteſe government, little more than the local revenue of 8000l per annum remained. Next to the ſurrender of Malta, lord Grenville adverted to the new acquiſition of the firſt conſul in Italy, and the attainment of Elba; and from theſe points argued, that Great Britain was, by theſe arrangements, as effectually excluded from the ports of the Mediterranean, from our important Levant trade, and even from the important object of Egypt, which had already coſt this country ſo much blood and treaſure; and in the attainment of which, the Britiſh nation had acquired ſo much glory, as if a boom had been thrown acroſs the ſtraits of Gibraltar, peculiarly for our excluſion. The noble lord next adverted to our ſurrender of the French Weſt India iſlands, which we had taken, and the new ſurrender of Louiſiana to France, by which means France not only obtained the virtual poſſeſſion of Florida, and a direct road to Mexico, but a commanding influence over the United States of America, and the complete controul over our Weſt India iſlands. He next turned his obſervations to our ſurrenders in the eaſt, and particularly the Cape of Good Hope; the ſurrender of which to the Dutch was, he contended, virtually a ſurrender to France, which would completely check our influence with our Indian poſſeſſions in time of war, both in a commercial and military view. It was ſtipulated, by the definitive treaty, that the Cape was to be a neutral port, and equally open to the admiſſion of ſix ſhips of the line from any of the parties contending; but under this arrangement, though ſix Britiſh ſhips of the line had admiſſion there, they were liable to be met by eighteen enemies ſhips from the three inimical powers of France, Spain, and Holland. Our commerce from India could not be brought home in leſs than three fleets, or our commerce outward, or our conveyance of troops to reinforce our garriſons there, in leſs than two fleets. Each of theſe fleets muſt, in time of war, have a convoy of ſhips of war equal to contend with the enemies fleets ſtationed at the Cape. So that a force of even ſix ſhips of the line there would require a force of four times their number to be able to protect an intercourſe with thoſe ſeas. Beſides, in ſending our troops to India, and having no power to land and refreſh them at the Cape, they would be utterly unfit for ſervice when they reached India, and for many months afterward; whereas, had we retained the Cape as a ſituation indiſpenſable to the perfect ſecurity of our poſſeſſions in India, troops from thence might be detached to India immediately, and arrive in time and fit for ſervice, as was the caſe in the late war with Tippoo Sultan, when troops detached from the Cape arrived in time and fit for ſervice, ſo to be marched up the country, directly on their landing, and actually preſent at the ſiege of Seringapatam. He next adverted to the reſtoration of the French poſſeſſions in India, and the Dutch port and town of Cochin, which he conſidered as in effect ſurrendered to France, and one which would enable a French factory to foment diſcontents, and carry on intrigues in our newly-conquered territories in the Myſore, and not only encourage inſurrection and revolt, but ſupply the inſurgents with arms and ammunition. Having expatiated with much force on theſe ſeveral points, he contended that in thoſe ſeveral ſurrenders to the enemy, we had yielded up the ſtrong and commanding ports in every quarter of the globe, by which our commerce and ſecurity were to be maintained; and then adverting to the circumſtance of allowing France to detach a powerful fleet to the Weſt Indies, during the very negociation

of the treaty, his majeſty's miniſters not only admitted a direct inſult, but loſt the opportunity of forcing France to conclude a definitive treaty on fair and honourable terms, which the urgency of their affairs in the Weſt Indies, and the circumſtance of our blockading their fleets in port, muſt have forcibly diſpoſed them to conclude. But ſtill more—his majeſty's miniſters were placed in the neceſſity of detaching a ſtrong naval force to the Weſt Indies, and maintaining there, even to this moment, thirty-ſix ſail of the line; a force conſiderably greater than we had in that quarter of the globe at any period of the war. Conſidering this circumſtance, together with the inſatiable ambition manifeſted by France of aggrandiſement in the Eaſt and in the Mediterranean; and the enormous naval and military eſtabliſhments, which an ordinary regard for our own ſafety would oblige us to keep up, he muſt conſider the preſent peace in no other point of view than as an armed truce; little leſs expenſive to the country than actual war. Having dwelt with much force and ingenuity on the various points of his arguments, lord Grenville concluded a ſpeech of nearly four hours continuance, by moving an addreſs to his majeſty; in ſubſtance acquainting his majeſty, 'that the houſe had taken into its moſt ſerious conſideration the definitive treaty of peace his majeſty had been graciouſly pleaſed to communicate to them: to acknowledge with profound reſpect and humility his majeſty's conſtitutional right to conclude war or peace; to aſſure his majeſty of their zealous co operation to maintain inviolate in all its terms the peace which his majeſty has been pleaſed to conclude: but that in conſidering the treaty, they ſaw ſo many important poſſeſſions ſurrendered, ſo many various intereſts involved, and ſo many commercial rights of this country, and ancient treaties deſerted; that they beſought his majeſty to ſet on foot an immediate negociation, to explain and regulate with the powers with whom we had been lately at war, ſuch matters as left in doubt or queſtion any of thoſe important rights—concluding with an aſſurance to his majeſty of the cheerful co-operation of that houſe in the ſupport of his majeſty in any meaſure that would tend to ſecure the rights, intereſts, and tranquillity of the Britiſh empire.'

The duke of NORFOLK thought the ſpeech of the noble lord tended to the immediate renewal of hoſtilities, notwithſtanding the definitive treaty of peace ſo recently ratified; and concluded by moving as an amendment 'the omiſſion of all that part of the noble lord's propoſed addreſs after the firſt part, which aſſured his majeſty of the co-operation of the houſe in maintaining the terms of peace inviolate.'

Lord PELHAM roſe in reply to lord Grenville, but in a voice ſo low it was ſcarcely poſſible to collect a ſingle argument. He concluded by moving a counter addreſs to his majeſty, which being ſimilar to the amendment moved by lord Hawkeſbury in the houſe of commons, we refer our readers thereto.

Earl CAERNARVON condemned the peace as the moſt diſgraceful which this country had ever agreed to. He highly approved of lord Grenville's motion.

The LORD CHANCELLOR, in an elaborate ſpeech, defended the definitive treaty, admitting, nevertheleſs, that he had heard from his noble friend many ſolid objections to it, accompanied by many more wholly unworthy, in his mind, of the quarter they came from. In full detail, he met and anſwered the ſeveral objections of variations from the preliminaries, and of total omiſſions of ſeveral points ſtated to be important, and contended that they were either inſignificant in themſelves, impracticable, or not affected in the leaſt by their being omitted.

Earl CAMDEN declared, that he did not approve of the preliminaries, and ſtill leſs of the definitive treaty, but the treaty being concluded, he thought it better to ſupport it.

The duke of RICHMOND warmly commended the ſpeech of the noble lord who opened the debate (lord Grenville) but did not approve of the conduct of the war in all its parts.

Lord HOBART, in a ſhort ſpeech, by an explanation of two or three facts, anſwered ſeveral of the ſtrongeſt objections ſtated by lord Grenville. He particularly contended that the noble lord had ſpoken abſurdly, when he ſaid that the poſſeſſion of the command of the river Arawari by the French would endanger Britiſh ſhips in their attempts to enter Rio Janeiro, by ſhowing that the courſe of the river Arawari ran a different way toward Para, and Rio Janeiro lay many degrees lower than the river Amazon.

The houſe divided on the amendment, contents 100, proxies 22; not contents 16: majority 106.

Lord Pelham's motion was then put and carried without a diviſion.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Thurſday, May 13.

Mr. WYNDHAM moved the order of the day for taking into conſideration the Definitive Treaty between Great Britain and the French republic, Spain and Holland.

Mr. Wyndham then entered, at great length, into a review of the conſequences likely to reſult from the definitive treaty; but as the arguments which he urged are ſimilar to thoſe we have given of lord Grenville's in the houſe of lords, ſhall only notice that he concluded his obſervations by moving an addreſs to his majeſty, ſtating 'That they had taken into their ſerious conſideration the definitive treaty of peace. That they would keep inviolate the public faith, as pledged in the engagements entered into by his majeſty, but that they could not help feeling regret at the nature of certain of thoſe engagements, relying on his majeſty's paternal wiſdom to take ſuch meaſures as might avert the danger ariſing from ſuch engagements expreſſing their readineſs to ſupport his majeſty in ſuch engagements as he ſhould deem neceſſary for that purpoſe, and recommending to his majeſty to keep a naval and military power ſufficient to meet ſuch danger.'

Lord FOLKESTONE, after endeavouring to ſhow that by the late treaty we have given our ſanction to jacobinical principles, deſerted our allies, and abandoned our commercial advantages, concluded with ſeconding the addreſs.

Lord HAWKESBURY addreſſed the houſe to the following purport:—'Sir, A great deal of the ſpeech of my right hon. friend (Mr. Wyndham) conſiſted in predictions as to the conſequences, and aſſertions as to the conditions of the peace; but I will aſſure him and the noble lord who ſeconded his motion, that were the treaty ſuch as they have deſcribed it—and I conſidered it as by any means injurious to the intereſts—but particularly if it were degrading to the dignity of the country, no man in this houſe, in the empire, would be more ready to oppoſe it than myſelf, whoever the author of it might be. The queſtion ſeems to me properly to have divided itſelf into heads: firſt, whether the terms of the definitive treaty were conſiſtent with the baſis of the preliminary articles; and, ſecondly, whether, if any departure from the preliminary articles had taken place, that, or any events which had occurred during the negociation, were of ſuch conſequence as to induce miniſters to refuſe to conclude the treaty? Before I proceed to remark on thoſe heads, I beg leave to ſay a few words of the circumſtances in which this country was involved at the time the negociation was begun. To this gentlemen ſeldom looked, though it was evidently connected with—at leaſt neceſſary to a proper deciſion on the ſubject before the houſe. It would be remembered, that we were then left almoſt alone to contend with France; Auſtria obliged to comply with a peace dictated by the enemy; the German empire at her mercy, deſerted by all her allies except two, Portugal and Naples, neither capable of affording us any very effective aid; we ſaw ourſelves, inſtead of being at the head of a formidable confederacy, menaced by a league of our old allies, under the influence and direction of France. Such was our ſituation; and in this dilemma peace was the opinion of all perſons—it was called for loudly by the country: it was preſſed ſtrongly by the gentlemen on the oppoſition ſide of the houſe, that ſome attempt ſhould be made to negotiate. Accordingly negociation was entered into. But this negociation commenced under proſpects evidently very unfavorable, in the degrading ſtate of Europe after the important event of the treaty of Luneville; and our ſhips ſhut out from almoſt every port in Europe. Notwithſtanding theſe diſadvantageous appearances, miniſters were determined to ſuſtain the honour and conſequence of this country, and in their propoſal to negociate, they laid down three principles as the rule of their conduct—firſt, the complete integrity of the dominions of the Britiſh empire: ſecondly, fidelity to our allies; and thirdly, to obtain compenſation out of the conqueſts we had made to counterpoiſe the acquiſitions of France on the continent. In theſe objects it was our firm purpoſe to perſiſt, and the probability of our ſucceſs in attaining them was conſiderably heightened by ſome events which gave a propitious turn to our affairs about that time—namely the victory of the 2d of April, in the Baltic; and the gallant conduct of our army in Egypt, particularly on the 13th of March, not a little contributed to diſpoſe the French government to peace. At all events miniſters meant to ſeek compenſation in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, as that ſeemed the moſt adviſable principle: but as this ſubject has been ſo fully canvaſſed in the debate on the preliminaries, I ſhall paſs it by, ſaying, that we have annexed

to our dominions two of the greateſt naval ſtations in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; not that I would argue this as a proof that the peace is more or leſs honourable on account of this annexation, for according to the doctrine my right hon. friend holds out, it is not an iſland more or leſs, or any conqueſt whatever, that would conſtitute the ſecurity or the advantages of peace. I doubt if in his view, any thing ſhort of the total ſubverſion of the French government would be ſatisfactory: but that I think muſt now be left entirely out of the queſtion—that hope can ſcarcely exiſt in rational minds. I ſhall now proceed to examine the diviſion of the queſtion which relates to the events that occurred pending the negociations. I agree with the ſentiment expreſſed by my right hon. friend (the chancellor of the exchequer) on a former evening, that it was impoſſible to view ſome of thoſe events without anxiety and alarm—ſo much for the points themſelves; but it was gravely to be conſidered how far theſe events ought to influence the progreſs of our negotiation; or whether it would be juſtifiable in miniſters, on account of thoſe events, to break off the treaty. I am no advocate for the opinion of ſome perſons, that we ought to be inſulted in our politics as in our ſituation, and that we ſhould have no concern in continental politics; nor can I ſubſcribe to the doctrine of my right hon. friend, that we are on all occaſions to volunteer in continental affairs; that an interference is not, as it would ſeem, a matter of choice, but of obligation. This interference muſt at all times be determined by circumſtances: whether the power aggrieved, or where rights may be invaded, ſhould feel any deſire for our aſſiſtance; or an inclination to aſſert her own independence, were certainly material to be conſidered: otherwiſe an interpoſition would be the height of extravagance. Our connection with the continent is relative: and when we propoſe to interfere in its affairs, it is but wiſe, to conſider the amount of the intereſt that ſhould prompt us; if the object could be carried, what the diſpoſition of the power immediately benefited may be, and if we ſhould loſe, what degree of injury our own country is likely to ſuſtain. Before we engage at all in ſuch conteſts, the internal ſituation of our own country ſhould be taken into conſideration. I believe, on a review of the circumſtances of the principal tranſactions which took place during the negociation, the reaſons I have ſtated would apply with ſufficient force to diſſuade any Britiſh ſtateſman from attempting to prevent it. God forbid that we ſhould not be influenced by obligations of honour, or that we ſhould give up the reputation of the country, by declining to protect any power from injuſtice; but a ſtrong caſe ſhould be made out to perſuade us to an effort attended with riſk to ourſelves; for the ſame reaſon which would induce an interference in favour of the Ciſalpine republic, would urge us to inſiſt upon the reſtoration of the Netherlands to Auſtria—of Holland to the Stadtholder—and of Savoy to the king of Sardinia. Even were we diſpoſed to reſiſt the acceſſion of Bonaparte to the preſidency of the Ciſalpine republic, how could we have accompliſhed any thing without the aid of the continental powers? And how did the caſe ſtand? Bonaparte's newly acquired power was ſcarcely announced when the cabinet of Berlin congratulated him, that of Vienna acquieſced, and Ruſſia ſhowed no ſymptom of diſſatisfaction. Would it then be conſidered wiſe or prudent in us alone to renew the war in conſequence of this event? He would put the queſtion to any gentleman in the houſe, whether the value of the object would even excuſe ſuch a reſolution? Another event which is ſuppoſed to have changed the nature of our negociation, is the ceſſion of Louiſiana to France—on this point I would beg to call to the attention of the houſe that I do not mean to conſider it an indifferent object; but it would be recollected that Louiſiana is an old French ſettlement, and that during the negociation of the peace of 1763, which was generally thought the moſt triumphant peace this country had ever concluded, this ſettlement was privately transferred by France to Spain, and that tranſaction was much more groſs than that now complained of, becauſe Louiſiana was referred to expreſsly by the treaty of 1763. As to the political advantages which France could derive from this poſſeſſion, I doubt whether they can be of much conſequence; but I have little doubt that they are not of ſuch conſequence as to have juſtified miniſters in rejecting the peace. With reſpect to the definitive treaty, gentlemen complain of it on two grounds—namely, for faults of omiſſion and commiſſion. Under the firſt claſs the principal is the non-revival of ſeveral commercial and political treaties, and two particular conventions. As to the firſt, I ſhould ſuppoſe, if gentlemen would look into thoſe treaties, they would

not be ſo very ſolicitous for their revival. From the treaty of Weſtphalia up to that of 1763, it was the practice, as the ſyſtem of Europe was perpetually changing, to renew former treaties, with ſuch alterations and additions as ſuited exiſting circumſtances, until at length thoſe treaties became ſo confuſed, inconſiſtent, and contradictory, as to contribute more to augment litigation than to produce the adjuſtment of any difference. If we made any engagements they ſhould be preciſe and explicit, not ſuch as thoſe treaties; beſide we ought to be cautious how we ſhould conſent to multiply our engagements. Another objection I have to the renewal of thoſe treaties is, that we ſhould bind ourſelves too much. I ſhall ſtate the former practice as to ſuch renewal of treaties. In 1748, when we guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, we alſo guaranteed Sileſia to Pruſſia—what then if, agreeable to ſuch a precedent, we ſhould have to guarantee the Netherlands and Sardinia to France? I would aſk my right hon. friend whether this was not a ſufficiently ſtrong objection to the renewal of former treaties? The ſituation of miniſters in this caſe was one of extreme difficulty—they were rather willing to ſacrifice ſome advantages than place themſelves in the dilemma I have deſcribed; and they determined, if they could not Europe to do right, they would not be a party to her wrong. As to commercial treaties, if any perſon looked into them, they would be found not leſs objectionable than the former. One treaty with Holland gave the Dutch the power of carrying warlike ſtores over in time of war to an enemy's ports: would it be adviſeable, after the experience of the laſt war, to renew ſuch a treaty as that? Objections equally ſtrong would be found to operate againſt the renewal of our former treaties with France. With regard to the Eaſt Indies, and the alluſions to the ſtipulation in the treaty with the Dutch, reſpecting our flag and that of Holland, I ſhall ſay, as to the flag, it ſeems to be completely miſunderſtood by gentlemen. It is known that we have always claimed a right to ſuperiority in the narrow ſeas of India, though we have ſcarcely ever inſiſted on it, except with regard to the Dutch, with whom we once diſputed the right, and therefore in a treaty of peace a ſtipulation was introduced relative to the exerciſe of that right, and in every other treaty ſince, this ſtipulation has been renewed; but it is not by any means tantamount to a renunciation of the right which we claim, not only with reſpect to Holland, but as to every other power.

Gentlemen ſeem alſo to miſconceive the nature of our right to cut logwood, &c. in the bay of Honduras. The fact is, that right was ceded to us by the Spaniards in 1787, in return for ſome land we gave them on the Muſquito ſhore, therefore it is a ſettlement which we poſſeſs of right, and to which the Spaniards were as much bound to refer in the treaty as we were—It was in truth on our part no omiſſion. Gentlemen pointed their animadverſions at the difference they alledged to exiſt between the preliminaries and the definitive treaty, which they ſtated to conſiſt in theſe five points, as to priſoners, Portugal, Newfoundland, the Cape of Good Hope, and Malta. In theſe are compriſed what are called the faults of commiſſion. As to the firſt, the ſtate of the queſtion is this: in the treaty of 1763, an article was inſerted, that every belligerent power ſhould maintain its own priſoners; and that article was again renewed in the peace of 1783; it is an article which humanity and juſtice approves, and is ſanctioned by the beſt modern authors on the law of nations, among whom is Vattel; but the French diſputed this principle with us in the late negociation, alledging that they did not grant it to any of the other powers with which they had concluded peace. When, therefore, they afterward acceded to this principle, we could not claim a modification of it in our favour by refuſing to allow a deduction for the ſubſiſtence of the Ruſſian priſoners who were ſoldiers in our pay, and under our diſpoſal when made priſoners. On the ſubject of Portugal, the noble lord went over the grounds already ſo often ſtated—adding, 'ſome time after I came into office it was thought by miniſters that the Portugueſe might make a much firmer ſtand than they did againſt France and Spain; and it was determined to ſend advice to Portugal, as to the means of reſiſtance, and I had no heſitation in ſaying, that one part of that advice was, to place a more able officer at the head of their army; an advice not dictated by any diſreſpect to the officer then commanding, but merely becauſe from his age he was deemed incapable. This advice, however, was not attended to; had it been, it was intended to follow it up with ſome ſuccours; but miniſters would have been culpable if they had committed any part of the Britiſh army to the care of an incapable commander. Not-

withſtanding this conduct of Portugal, miniſters took means to communicate to them the progreſs we were making in negociation, and the proſpects we had, exhorting her to hold out as long as poſſible, that ſhe might obtain better terms, yet ſhe concluded a ſeparate peace. We afterward ſtepped in, and by our interference reduced the extent of the ceſſions ſhe had herſelf agreed to make in Guiana, an inſtance of liberality ſcarcely to be witneſſed. We ſo arranged it for her, that her navigation of the river Amazon is perfectly ſecured, and not at all expoſed to that interruption from the poſſeſſions the French had obtained by the treaty, that gentlemen on a former evening ſo ſtrenuouſly maintained, upon the authority of a map not quite ſo accurate as they have been taught to believe. As to the third point of difference, Newfoundland, gentlemen appeared to approve of that, for no conceſſion was made to France in that article: the arrangement is preciſely as it ſtood before the war; therefore no animadverſion has been made on it. The Cape of Good Hope, which forms the fourth point, has called forth many obſervations—but if gentlemen would more attentively compare the terms of the preliminary and the definitive treaties, they would ſee that the Cape was to be ſurrendered, in full ſovereignty, to the Dutch, and that there is no material difference between the two treaties on this head. In the opinions of perſons beſt qualified to judge of the Cape, it was thought more adviſeable to give it up thus to the Dutch, than to make it an *entrepot* in the hands of any other power. Gentlemen dwelt upon Malta as the fifth point of difference. As to that I ſhall ſay, that whether the arrangement of that iſland be as good a one as circumſtances would permit, gentlemen could not expect that we ſhould retain it ourſelves: for when we blockaded it we iſſued a declaration, that it was not our intention to retain, but to reſtore it to the order of St. John, under certain regulations. The firſt object of thoſe regulations was to ameliorate the condition of the Malteſe, and at this gentlemen ſeemed to level their principal hoſtility; they are averſe to the privileges granted to the inhabitants; they do not ſeem to think on the important point we have gained, in the abolition of the three French langues, which had much domineering influence in that iſland—leaving only the Ruſſian langue, and creating a Malteſe langue. Gentlemen would not be ſo diſturbed at the creation of this langue, or at the privilege given to the natives, if they would recollect the conduct of thoſe natives during the ſiege, when under a Britiſh officer they were ſo active in their exertions to annoy the French and ſecond our views; ſurely, ſuch men were entitled to our peculiar protection, and had ſome claim to be relieved from the oppreſſion to which they were liable under the ancient conſtitution. Is it not of conſequence to the ſecurity of the iſland to conciliate the population to the order, and thus enable that order to eſtabliſh a formidable militia for its defence. A power to guarantee it, with a view to preſerve it from the dominion of France, was alſo choſen; that guarantee was in fact firſt offered to Ruſſia, but ſuch is the change in the politics of courts, that Ruſſia refuſed; and it was therefore put under the protection of Naples—a country which has the deepeſt intereſt, from the contiguity of the iſland of Sicily, to take care that Malta ſhould not fall into the hands of France. This is not all, we have the guarantee of Auſtria, and the principal powers of Europe, for the independence of this iſland. Under all the circumſtances, I think there is no real departure in the definitive treaty from the baſis of the preliminary articles; and I alſo think that no event which occurred in the interim could excuſe a departure from the negociation. From the language of gentlemen, they ſeem to fear that we have loſt all by the peace; but I am decidedly of opinion, that we never ſtood, at the concluſion of any treaty of peace, in ſo good a relative ſituation to France, as at preſent. It is rather ſingular, while gentlemen ſpeak ſo much about Louiſiana, and other comparatively unimportant additions to French power, they never allude to our conqueſt of the Myſore, the deſtruction of that power which was the ſtaunch ally of France, and the inveterate, reſtleſs enemy of this country. What is our relative ſituation to France in the Eaſt Indies?—Who will anſwer by attemping a compariſon?—and is not our ſituation in the Weſt almoſt equally ſuperior? Our iſlands almoſt trebled in produce during the war, with the addition of one of the moſt fertile iſlands in the Weſt Indies, containing a moſt capacious harbour, and forming the firſt naval *depot* in that quarter. By the continuance of the war, we certainly had no hopes of obtaining as valuable objects as we have done by the peace, and the definitive treaty received under every impreſſion, particularly with

reſpect to the relative ſituation of this country and France, was as beneficial, honourable, and ſecure, as any impartial and zealous friend of the nation could expect. Having made ſome excellent remarks on the internal ſtate of France, and ſhown that the ambition of that country was to be more conſidered as the general diſpoſition of the people than of the form of government; he maintained, that as it was wiſe to economiſe the reſources of Great Britain, it was alſo wiſe, under all the circumſtances, to economiſe the ſpirit of the nation, and to conclude the peace, ſuch as it was. The intereſts of the country were entire, and its honour was preſerved, and in thoſe aſſertions he advanced nothing which could not be ſatisfactorily made out both in general and detail. His lordſhip then adverted to the impropriety of the addreſs, in its interference with the prerogative of his majeſty to make peace, as it would, if complied with, neceſſarily lead to a breach of the public faith. He concluded with moving an amendment to the following effect:—'That all the words after the word "That," as it firſt occurred in the original motion be omitted; that the houſe do approve of the definitive treaty, as agreeable to the preliminary articles, that they have viewed with the greateſt ſatisfaction the defeat of all perfidious attempts abroad, and traitorous deſigns at home—that they do congratulate his majeſty, that his dominions have been preſerved entire, and that the wealth, commerce, and trade of the country have been unimpaired and increaſed; that they are earneſtly deſirous to concur with his majeſty in promoting and rendering permanent the bleſſings of peace; that they, however, perfectly rely upon the wiſdom and vigilance of his majeſty in adopting every meaſure which may be neceſſary to prepare for any viciſſitude or change in the ſtate of public affairs, and that the houſe are ready to ſupport his majeſty in thoſe aſſurances with their lives and properties, in as loyal and zealous a manner as during the late conteſt.'

The hon. Mr. POLE, in a ſpeech of ſome length, ſeconded the amendment.

Mr. T. GRENVILLE went on the ſame ground of his noble brother in the houſe of lords, and repeated moſt of his objections.

Mr. DUNDAS next roſe to declare that the renewal of old treaties reſpecting our eaſtern poſſeſſions, was abſolutely uſeleſs, as ſince the deſtruction of the Myſorean empire, we had fully acquired the rights of ſovereigns of India, and our claims had no oppoſition to apprehend in that quarter. With regard to the ſubject immediately before the houſe, he admitted that both from theory and experience he could not approve of the ceſſion of the Cape, nor of Malta. While the Cape remained in our hands, it furniſhed the means of ſending out troops to India full of health and vigour; it was an excellent naval ſtation; it relieved us from all anxiety about the return of our ſhips from India and China after a long voyage. To the iſland of Malta he ſcarcely could annex an inferior degree of importance. It was eſſential to the trade of the Mediterranean and the Levant. It was alſo a watch tower, from which he wiſhed to ſee the Britiſh flag ever diſplayed for the protection of the Italian ſtates; he muſt, therefore, ſay, he could never be a member of any adminiſtration which could ſurrender both thoſe poſſeſſions, even as the price of peace: he could not, however, vote for the addreſs, which contained an invective againſt the peace which had been made.

After he ſat down general Gaſcoigne moved the adjournment of the debate.

The CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER, though fully ſenſible of the importance of a ſpeedy deciſion on this very intereſting ſubject, yet wiſhed its merits to be fully diſcuſſed; and if he could be aſſured that there were gentlemen ſtill anxious to deliver their ſentiments, he ſhould not oppoſe the queſtion of adjournment.

Mr. PITT ſpoke a few words to the ſame effect.

Mr. SHERIDAN ſtated that many members were anxious to deliver their ſentiments, and hinted that he had an amendment to offer in place of that which the noble lord had ſubmitted.

The queſtion was then loudly called for, and the houſe divided on general Gaſcoigne's motion—For the adjournment 185—Againſt it 137—Majority 48.

The houſe adjourned at three o'clock.

Friday, May 14.

The debate was again reſumed, when ſeveral new and pointed remarks in ſupport of the peace fell from lord Caſtlereagh. His lordſhip obſerved that it was with aſtoniſhment that he heard the maritime reſources of France mentioned as an object of apprehenſion to us, when we compared them with the immenſe maritime reſources which we had called forth during the war, and the immenſe increaſe they had received even during the period of hoſtilities. If

we compared the commerce of this country and France, and how they had been affected by the war, theſe apprehenſions muſt vaniſh at once. Before the war, France had boaſted an equality with England. Her imports then amounted to 17,000,000, and her exports to 15,000,000. During the courſe of the war, the imports of France diminiſhed to 61,000, and her exports to 11,000; while the imports of Great Britain had increaſed to 45,000,000, and her exports to 30,000,000. Would any one then ſay, that there could, ſoon, be any competition between the commerce of theſe two powers, even ſuppoſing that, after the peace, they ſtarted with equal advantages.

The CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER, in a ſpeech full of argument and candour, reviewed the moſt material objections that had been ſtarted on the other ſide of the houſe.—He admitted that circumſtances of a very important nature had taken place between the ſigning of the preliminaries and the definitive treaty. Yet he did not heſitate in ſaying, that miniſters, under the exiſting circumſtances, would have been wanting in duty had they adviſed his majeſty to continue the war.—'I have never thought,' ſaid Mr. Addington, 'of this treaty with exultation. I remain ſatisfied that I have done the beſt I could in my ſituation. I have not attempted to decorate it in falſe colours, nor varniſh it over with deceitful gloſſes. I I have yielded to prudence. I truſt in God I never ſhall forget that no ſcale is ſo low as to induce us to ſubmit to diſgrace. Our honour conſtitutes our ſafety. If he were aſked, why what paſſed at Lyons did not operate to break off the negociation, to obtain new ſecurities, or to the making of remonſtrances upon that head? He muſt ſay, that gentlemen have a wonderful facility in putting queſtions which might be extremely difficult for him to anſwer, if not impoſſible.—His great conſolation had been, that if the negociation failed, all the documents ſhould be laid before the houſe, and no information whatever withheld. We could not, from our own inſular ſituation, reſtore the balance of power on the continent. Providence had not given us the means of doing every thing we might wiſh to do for ourſelves and our allies too. We are ſtrong enough for all our ſeparate intereſts; but we never did, nor ever can, expect to interfere in a direct way to any great purpoſe, unaided, in continental concerns. He wondered gentlemen who oppoſed him did not ſee the peace in the ſame light with himſelf. Would it not be better, even admitting their views to a certain extent, to take an opportunity of huſbanding our reſources, and renewing our ſtrength, till ſome favourable opportunity occurred for the aſſiſtance of our friends and allies, when Auſtria, Ruſſia, and Pruſſia, might, in caſe of the unreſtrained ambition of France, be diſpoſed to check her growth and progreſs in dominion. I hope the preſent peace will be permanent and happy; but if in a few years war ſhould again unhappily be reſorted to, it will be a great ſatisfaction to us to have preſerved, unimpaired, thoſe means and reſources which will then become ſo indiſpenſable. A great foundation of our ſtrength is to be found in the knowledge which other powers may entertain of our reſources. Let it not be thought, however, that they have been waſted in the late conteſt. Far am I from thinking ſo. On the contrary, the very means of the late ſucceſsful negociation were the effect of the late war.——of the queſtions diſcuſſed relating to this treaty, there is not one which had not privately undergone a moſt ſcrupulous inveſtigation, particularly the matter of the renewal of treaties. The public have perhaps received the news of peace with too much joy. They ſuppoſed that taxation muſt be conſiderably lowered on that account, and did not conſider the neceſſity of an increaſed peace eſtabliſhment. But, if we are true to ourſelves, we may ſit down and enjoy repoſe, after a long, arduous, and glorious conteſt, in a peace as honourable as could be expected from all circumſtances, and as permanent as our good faith and national dignity can combine to render it?'

Mr. SHERIDAN, in a ſpeech of ſome length expreſſed his firm conviction that the peace which had been made was, under all the circumſtances, the beſt that could have been made. He was, however, by no means convinced, that the objections had been made by a right hon. gentleman (Mr. Windham) and his friends, had been anſwered. On the contrary, he was convinced that many of their arguments were unanſwerable; but he did not therefore attribute blame to the preſent miniſters, but to thoſe who had placed the country in ſuch a ſituation as to render ſuch a peace neceſſary. Upon theſe principles he could not vote for the original addreſs, which, in his opinion, conveyed a direct cenſure upon his majeſty's miniſters, which he did not think their con-

duct in concluding this peace deſerved; on the other hand, he could not vote for the amendment propoſed by the noble lord, becauſe it contained ſome aſſertions which he could not aſſent to. He lamented, that the noble lord's amendment was ſo worded, that he could not ſupport it, becauſe he wiſhed to expreſs his approbation of the peace, under all the circumſtances under which it was concluded. Thus ſituated, he ſhould propoſe an amendment, which he truſted, would be ſupported by the remains of the old whig phalanx who had conſtantly oppoſed the war.—The object of his amendment would be, 'to expreſs the regret of that houſe, that the omiſſion of ſeveral opportunities of negociating for peace, and particularly the refuſal of Bonaparte's offer to treat, had placed the country in a ſituation, that juſtified the painful ſacrifices made in the preſent treaty.'

Meſſrs. Curwen, Tierney, Grey, Whitbread, and Hobhouſe, ſaid a few words; after which, Mr. Windham explained; when the houſe divided on the motion for the addreſs—Ayes 20—Noes 276—Majority againſt it 256.

The amendment propoſed by Mr. Sheridan was then put, and negatived without a diviſion—and lord Hawkeſbury's amendment was carried without a diviſion.

The houſe adjourned at five o'clock on Saturday morning.

FRANCE.

Extract from the Regiſters of the Deliberations of the Conſervative Senate, of the 8th of May 1802.

Deliberation, containing the re-election of the firſt Conſul of the Republic.

THE ſenate, conſiſting of the number of members preſcribed by the 90th article of the conſtitutional act,

Having ſeen the meſſage of the councils of the republic, tranſmitted by three orators of the government, relative to the peace between France and England;

After having heard its ſpecial committee, charged by its arrête of the 6th inſt. to preſent a report on the teſtimony of gratitude proper to be given to the firſt conſul of the republic;

Conſidering, that the ſenate cannot expreſs more ſolemnly to the firſt conſul the gratitude of the nation, than in giving him a ſplendid proof of the confidence with which he has inſpired the French people:

Conſidering, likewiſe, that the ſecond, and third conſuls have honourably ſeconded the glorious labour of the firſt conſul of the republic:

From theſe motives, and the ſuffrages having been collected by ſecret ſcrutiny, the ſenate decrees as follows:

Art. 1. The conſervative ſenate, in the name of the French people, teſtifies its gratitude to the conſuls of the republic.

2. The conſervative ſenate re-elects citizen Napoleon Bonaparte, firſt conſul of the French republic, for ten years immediately following the ten years for which he has been appointed by the 39th article of the conſtitution.

3. The preſent *Senatus Conſultum* ſhall be tranſmitted by a meſſage to the legiſlative body, to the tribunate, and to the councils of the republic.

TRONCHET, Preſident.
CHASSET, and SERRUXIER, } Secretaries.

Bonaparte, firſt Conſul of the Republic, to the Conſervative Senate.

Senators, Paris, May 9.

The honourable proof of your eſteem, contained in your deliberations of the 8th inſtant, will be always deeply engraven in my heart.

The ſuffrage of the people has inveſted me with the ſupreme authority. I ſhould not think myſelf aſſured of your confidence, if the act which retains me in that authority was not ſtill ſanctioned by them. For the laſt three years fortune has ſmiled upon the republic, but fortune is inconſtant, and many men who have been loaded with its favours, have at laſt found that they had lived ſome years too long. The intereſt of my glory and of my happineſs ſeem to fix the period when the peace of the world was proclaimed, as the term of my public life. But the glory and happineſs of a citizen ought to give way, when the intereſt and good wiſhes of the ſtate call upon him. You think I owe this new ſacrifice to the people: I will make it, if the wiſhes of the people command me to do that which your ſuffrages have authoriſed.

(Signed) BONAPARTE.

Decree of the 10th of May.

The conſervative ſenate taking into conſideration that the reſolution of the firſt

conſul is a ſplendid mark of homage paid to the ſovereignty of the people; that the people, conſulted on their deareſt intereſts themſelves, decree as follows:

Art. 1. The French people ſhall be conſulted upon this queſtion.

Shall Napoleon Bonaparte be conſul for life?

2. Regiſters ſhall be opened in each commune, where the citizens ſhall be invited to give their votes upon this queſtion.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

APRIL 29.

THIS day the ceremony of the proclamation of Peace took place. The proceſſion commenced at St. James', and moved on till it came to Temple-bar, where it was met by the lord-mayor, and the other city officers. The lord-mayor and ſheriffs took their place in the line immediately after the heralds, and other officers of the college of arms. At the bottom of Chancery-lane, the whole halted, and the herald read his majeſty's proclamation. The proceſſion then moved on through Fleet-ſtreet, up Ludgate-hill, through St. Paul's Church-yard, and into Cheapſide. At the top of Wood-ſtreet, the proclamation was again read. At the Royal Exchange it was read for the laſt time. When they returned to the Manſion-houſe, the guards, with heralds, knight-marſhal, &c. paſſed on. The lord-mayor, ſheriffs and aldermen, alighted.

The inhabitants of the metropolis had ſo much time to prepare for the illuminations, that they had all the benefit of concert. Illuminations were never more general. Among the places moſt diſtinguiſhed, were the Bank, Manſion houſe, Eaſt India houſe, Phœnix fire-office, Drury-lane theatre, Mr. Hope's, Cavendiſh-ſquare, and M. Otto's, Portman-ſquare.

APRIL 30.

Yeſterday morning the bidders for the lottery met at the chancellor of the exchequer's, in Downing-ſtreet, when the following were the propoſals made:

	£.	s.	d.
Paul Groves - -	15	1	8
Eiſh, and Co. - -	15	1	8
Cope, - - -	15	1	8
Sprott, and Co. -	15	2	6
Solomons, and Co. -	15	6	10
Wilkinſon, and Co. -	15	17	6
Sneweli, Towgood, and Co.	16	3	4

The latter, therefore, have the contract. The profit to government is the prodigious ſum of 555,000l. This is the beſt bargain that ever was made.

On Wedneſday, April 28, the ſeſſions were opened at the Old Bailey, before lord Ellenborough, Mr. baron Thompſon, the recorder, and ſeveral of the aldermen.

MAY 1.

Admiralty-office, April 27. His majeſty has been graciouſly pleaſed to ſignify his commands that, in conſideration of the very meritorious ſervices of the marines during the late war, the corps ſhall in future be ſtyled the Royal Marines. By command of their lordſhip.

EVAN NEPEAN.

MAY 4.

Yeſterday a wardmote was held for the election of an alderman of Caſtle Baynard ward, in conſequence of the reſignation of Mr. Herne, when Mr. Rigby was elected.

MAY 7.

Yeſterday was held the anniverſary meeting of the Sons of the Clergy, at which were preſent the archbiſhops of Canterbury and York, the biſhops of London, Wincheſter, Durham, Bath and Wells, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Norwich, Exeter, Oxford, Chicheſter, and St. David's; the right hon. lord Brownlow, the lord-mayor, aldermen Boydell, Watſon, Curtis, Cadell, Perchard, and Flower; the two ſheriffs, with many of the clergy and laity. They afterward dined at Merchant Taylor's hall.

	£.	s.	d.
Collection at the rehearſal -	52	2	6
Feaſt-day - - -	188	1	0
At the hall - - -	535	6	0
Total	705	9	6

On Wedneſday the recorder made his report to the king in council, of the ſeventeen priſoners who received ſentence of death in March ſeſſion, all of whom were reſpited during his majeſty's pleaſure.

MAY 8.

Yeſterday the right hon. the lord-mayor held a ſpecial court of common-council, for the expreſs purpoſe of conſidering of an addreſs to his majeſty on the final termination of the war.

Mr. Waithman moved, 'That a dutiful and loyal addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, congratulating him upon the happy end of the late bloody, extended, and expenſive war, in which we were ſo unhappily engaged.'

Mr. Taddy ſeconded the motion, and on the queſtion be put, it was unanimouſly

agreed to, and a committee of all the aldermen preſent, viz. Meſſrs. Skinner, Curtis, Newman, Perchard, Shaw, and a commoner out of each ward, aſſiſted by the officers, were appointed to draw up an addreſs; and after withdrawing for ſome time, returned and preſented a draft of an addreſs, which being read twice, was objected to by Mr. Waithman, who moved an amendment, which, on a diviſion, was negatived, the numbers being as follows:

For the amendment, two aldermen, 14 commoners, two tellers—18. Againſt it, two aldermen, 30 commoners, two tellers —34. Majority 16 againſt the amendment.

MAY 12.

A ſubſcription has been opened at Lloyd's, for erecting a ſtatue to Mr. Pitt, for 'the diſtinguiſhed and valuable ſervices which he rendered his country during the courſe of his able and upright adminiſtration.'

The ſeſſions ended at the Old Bailey on Monday laſt, when ſentence of death was paſſed on Fennell, Cock, Hartwright, Beaſeley, Clarke, Ralph, Harris, Davis, and Catharine Burn. Streatham, Walſh and Rowan, were ordered to be tranſported for fourteen years. Forty-two to be tranſported for ſeven years. Twenty-ſix were ordered to be confined for ſix months, ſeveral for ſmaller terms, and others to be whipped and diſcharged. The ſeſſions was then adjourned to Wedneſday, June 2.

MAY 15.

On Thurſday the lord-mayor, aldermen, &c. proceeded in ſtate from Guildhall to St. James', and preſented an addreſs of congratulation on the reſtoration of peace. His majeſty received them very graciouſly: they had the honour to kiſs his majeſty's hand, and Mr. ſheriff Rawlins received the honour of knighthood.—The following is his majeſty's anſwer to the addreſs:—'I thank you for this very loyal and affectionate addreſs, and for your congratulations on the reſtoration of the public peace. Your cordial and ſteady attachment to our invaluable conſtitution, and the lively ſenſe you expreſs of the unrivalled exertions which have been diſplayed by my ſubjects of every deſcription, are moſt grateful to me, and cannot fail to ſecure to my city of London my conſtant favour and protection.

MAY 19.

At a meeting held yeſterday at Lloyd's coffee-houſe, to conſider of the money raiſed for a ſtatue to Mr. Pitt, it was reſolved—That the money ſhould be laid out at intereſt until after his demiſe.

Plymouth, May 17. Laſt night and this morning there was a heavy fall of ſnow on the ſkirts of Bichly Wood and the Moor, and ice the thickneſs of a crown-piece.

MAY 22.

Yeſterday the lord-mayor held a court of common-council, at Guildhall—ſeven aldermen, Mr. recorder, Mr. common ſerjeant, the law officers, and upward of 150 commoners, were preſent. His lordſhip laid before them the anſwer of his majeſty to their addreſs of congratulation on the reſtoration of peace; which, being read, was ordered to be entered on the proceedings of the court. The court ordered inſtructions to be given to the committee of city lands to defend the chartered rights of the city, and to uſe every exertion to proſecute their petition pending in parliament againſt the eſtabliſhing a market at or near Paddington. The court agreed with the committee of city lands in their report for complying with the requeſt of the earl of Darnley, for directing a market near Finſbury-ſquare, for the ſale of proviſions, &c.

On Thurſday morning, about four o'clock, a fire broke out at the repoſitory in Woolwich Warren. Toward five the fire raged with uncommon fury, threatening the deſtruction of all the adjoining buildings. When it ſpread nearer to the laboratory, the conſequences of ſuch an exploſion were ſo truly alarming, it was in contemplation to batter it down with cannon. The wind, however, very fortunately, confined the devaſtation to the repoſitory. After two hours exertion, the fury of the flames began to abate, and the fire was gradually maſtered in ſuch a manner as to diſpel every alarm for its further progreſs. The firſt care was to remove the bombs and mortars from the imminent danger in which they were ſituate. Beſide the fears for the laboratory, in another building adjoining were about ſix thouſand gun-carriages, and vaſt quantities of ammunition, in ſtorehouſes and work-ſhops. With the exception of three mortars, which made a terrible exploſion indeed, all the articles of a precarious nature were removed. The curious articles deſtroyed conſiſted of arms of a rare kind —Tippoo Saib's gun—India wall pieces—a variety of cannon—rockets! in ſhort, almoſt every article uſed in the military art, together with every ſpecimen of warlike weapons. The fire broke out at one and the ſame time in three different places,

beſide which a great maſs of combuſtible materials has been diſcovered. The damage done at the model-room is particularly to be lamented, as ſeveral choice works of art have been deſtroyed.

MAY 24.

Chelmsford, May 21. The late inclement and unſeaſonable weather is perhaps unparalleled in many years. In this part of the country, for ſeveral ſucceſſive days, ſnow and hail have fallen, and ice has been found, in expoſed ſituations, near a quarter of an inch thick. On Friday and Saturday morning the ice, ſix or ſeven miles from the metropolis, was half an inch thick, the cold continued with little or no intermiſſion till Sunday afternoon, when a warm gleam of ſunſhine broke out; this was ſucceeded by thunder, and that again by a ſhower of ſleet, or more properly of ſnow. Monday morning was froſty even beyond thoſe of Friday and Saturday, and the cold continued on Tueſday unuſually ſevere. On the night of Tueſday, and on the following day, a conſiderable quantity of rain fell, after which, the cold abated ſomewhat of its rigour; but the weather ſtill continues highly unſeaſonable.

MAY 25.

Yeſterday a mail from Jamaica reached town, brought to Falmouth by the Cheſterfield packet, in forty days. By her, information has been received, that very unfavourable accounts were circulated at Jamaica reſpecting the ſtate of the French army in St. Domingo. The climate, and the haraſſing kind of warfare carried on by the blacks, had greatly reduced the French force, and unleſs ſpeedy and large reinforcements arrived, the ſucceſs of the expedition was deemed hopeleſs.

MAY 26.

Yeſterday a court of aldermen was held at Guildhall, preſent the lord-mayor, 17 aldermen, the recorder, and ſheriffs; when the following gentlemen were nominated to be preſented to the livery on Midſummer-day, for their choice of two of them to be ſheriffs of London and county of Middleſex, for the enſuing year, viz. William George Sibley, eſq. citizen and mercer; William Thwaytes, eſq. citizen and clothworker; Philip Norris, eſq. citizen and carpenter; Charles Pratt, eſq. citizen and baker; John Butts, eſq. citizen and draper; ſir John Arundell, knt. citizen and gun-maker; Peter Everitt Meſtaer, eſq. citizen and clothworker; James Simmons, eſq. citizen and ſtationer; and Thomas Fiſh, eſq. citizen and armourer and brazier.

BIRTH.

LADY of William Baker, eſq. M. P. a ſon.

MARRIAGES.

HON. George Vere Hobart, ſecond ſon of the earl of Buckinghamſhire, to miſs Janet Macleap, eldeſt daughter of lieutenant-colonel Alexander Maclean, eſq.

Samuel James Arnold, eſq. of Dukeſtreet, Weſtminſter, to miſs Matilda Caroline Pye, daughter of Henry James Pye, eſq. of Queen's-ſquare, Weſtminſter.

DEATHS.

REV. E. Nelſon, rector of Burnham Thorp, Norfolk, and father of lord viſcount Nelſon, aged 79 years.

Cecil Pitt, eſq. of Dalſton, aged 79.

Mrs. Hatfield Kaye, ſiſter of the laſt earl of Strafford.

William Withers, eſq. recorder of York.

T. Warren, eſq. at Warminſter, aged 85.

Mrs. Williams, wife of C. Williams, eſq. and youngeſt daughter of the late ſir John Gibbons, bart.

Sir John Stewart Hamilton, bart. M. P.

Mr. Peter Elmſly, formerly a bookſeller in the Strand.

Widow Pilmer, of Stamford Baron, aged 100.

Rev. Edward Cranmer, vicar of St. Bride's, London.

Mrs. Fielding, widow of the late Henry Fielding, eſq. well known by his literary productions.

Mrs. Eliſabeth Renwick, aged 72 years, daughter of the late ſir William Purvis, bart.

Miſs Boyd, ſiſter of ſir John Boyd, bart.

Widow Miller, at Fen Ditton, aged 103.

Hon. Frederick Stuart, M. P.

Lady Payne, widow of the late ſir Gillies Payne.

Adam Urquhart, eſq. of Aberdeenſhire, aged 81.

Mrs. Mary Noel, aged 78, aunt to viſcount Wentworth.

Lady of the hon. A. Butler Danvers.

PROMOTIONS.

JAMES Piget, eſq. and William lord Radſtock, vice-admirals of the red—to be admirals of the blue.

Alexander Groeme, and George Keppel, eſqrs. vice-admirals of the white—to be vice-admirals of the red.

Charles Chamberlayne, and P. Rainier, eſq. vice-admirals of the blue—to be vice-admirals of the white.

Sir George Home, and ſir Charles Cotton, barts. rear-admirals of the red—to be vice-admirals of the blue.

John Willett Payne, eſq. and ſir Robert Calder, rear-admirals of the white—to be rear-admirals of the red.

William Adam, eſq.—ſolicitor-general to the prince of Wales.

Lieutenant-generals John Leland, James Hamilton, John Stratton, James Rooke, Charles Croſbie, John earl of Suffolk, hon. Chapple Norton, George Hotham, David Dundas, ſir Robert Abercromby, K. B. Gerard Lake, ſir Thomas Muſgrave, bart. James Coates, Ralph Dundas, Richard Whyte, ſir Alured Clake, K. B.—to be generals in the army.

Hon. George Vere Hobart—to be lieutenant-governor of Grenada.

William Rawlins, eſq.—a knt.

Thomas Sutton, eſq. ſolicitor-general—a knt.

John Pinhorne, eſq. of the Iſle of Wight—a knt.

Charles Arbuthnot, eſq.—envoy extraordinary to the court of Sweden.

PREFERMENT.

DR. Richard Beadon, biſhop of Glouceſter—to be biſhop of Bath and Wells.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

APRIL 27.

J. HARPER, Bordeſley, Warwickſhire, malt-mill-maker.

A. Scott, Workington, mercer.

J. Oſbaldiſton, Southampton, baker.

W. Williams, Dean-ſtreet, Holborn, carpenter.

W. Laſhbrooke, Southampton-buildings, Chancery-lane, wine-merchant.

E. Douſe, Coades-row, Lambeth, milliner.

W. Robinſon, R. F. Parris, and D. Squires, King-ſtreet, Seven Dials, bakers.

MAY 1.

J. D. Collier, Abridge, Eſſex, farmer.

J. Sarjant, Sunderland, ſpirit-merchant.

R. W. Carr, and R. Carr, Leeds, in Yorkſhire, dryſalters.

H. Reader, Leeds, Yorkſhire, mercer.

R. Hooper, Burbage, Wiltſhire, corn-chandler.

S. Biſhop, Great Newport-ſtreet, Soho, ſtationer.

J. Gogerly, Alderſgate-ſtreet, money-ſcrivener.

E. Heal, Trowbridge, innkeeper.

H. Wilkinſon, Billiter-lane, merchant.

MAY 4.

T. Aris, Upper Rathbone-place, St. Pancras, ſhopkeeper.

E. Pemberton, and J. Houlding, Liverpool, merchants.

J. Pride, Rome, Monmouthſhire, timber merchant.

J. Ruſſell, Worceſter, grocer.

W. Tidſwell, Stockport, Cheſter, cotton-ſpinner.

E. F. Sadler, Glouceſter, mercer.

J. Sutherland, Bath, haberdaſher.

W. Sutton, Sadlers'-hall-court, merchant.

W. Shevill, Great Preſcott-ſtreet, Goodman's fields, merchant.

J. Sharland, Cockſpur-ſtreet, Charing-croſs, linen-draper.

J. Ruſſell, E. Ruſſell, W. Hartland, and T. Williams, Worceſter, merchants.

MAY 8.

J. Elderton, Great Carter-lane, oilman.

T. Wilkinſon, Grimeſcarrfoot, Yorkſhire, merchant.

J. Rideing, Liverpool, merchant.

J. Faulkner, Macclesfield, in Cheſhire, druggiſt.

T. Platt, Diglee, Yorkſhire, merchant.

W. Sutton, Salters'-hall-court, London, merchant.

J. Golding the elder, and J. Golding, the younger, Pudhill, in Glouceſterſhire, clothiers.

J. Hoſtage, Oxford-ſtreet, haberdaſher.

MAY 11.

F. Marſhall, Northumberland-ſtreet, jeweller.

J. Varley the younger, Shardlow, Derbyſhire, cornfactor.

W. Dale, Petworth, Suſſex, miller.

T. Cartwright, Manchester, upholſterer.

J. Harriſon, Stoke-upon-Trent, Staffordſhire, manufacturer of earthenware.

T. Johnſon, Kidderminſter, grocer.

D. Hamaway, Brandon, Norfolk, merchant.

J. Chaddock, and R. Keay, Wigan, in Lancaſhire, potters.

MAY 15.

W. Doller, Winchester, innholder.

T. Smith, Drury-lane, baker.

G. Wrigley, Matley, Cheſter, hatter.

J. Rineing, Liverpool, and W. Lever, Manchester, merchants.

T. Beeſley, Burton, Yorkſhire, potter.

T. Lanſdale, Lower Brook-ſtreet, linen-draper.

T. Powell, Warwick-ſtreet, Golden-ſquare, taylor.

H. White, Back Road, Iſlington, ſtock-broker.

D. Wolſtenholme the younger, Waltham croſs, Hertfordſhire, innholder.

J. Douglas, Cuper's-bridge, Lambeth, clothier.

E. Gardner, Jew's-row, Chelſea, cheeſemonger.

W. Watſon, Fenchurch-ſtreet, merchant.
J. Rapſon, Plymouth-dock, ſhopkeeper.
W. Gilbert, Chiſwell-ſtreet, grocer.
L. Mozley, Liverpool, watchmaker.

MAY 18.

B. P. Wagner, Great Wincheſter-ſtreet, merchant.
J. Lewis, Old Jewry, warehouſeman.
W. W. Young, Dillis-mill, Glamorganſhire, miller.
T. Harriſon the younger, Sandford-hall, Glouceſterſhire, timber-merchant.
J. Yeomans, Tamworth, Staffordſhire, clothier.
W. H. Newton, Golden-lane, Barbican, liquor-merchant.
J. B. Timmings, Portſea, Southampton, grocer.

MAY 22.

R. Rutherford, Sunderland, maſt-maker.
J. M. Bloomfield, Manſel-ſtreet, Goodman's-fields, money-ſcrivener.
D. Seefeldt, Greek-ſtreet, Soho, taylor.
J. Harriſon, Workington, Cumberland, ſail-maker.
E. Graydon, Sunderland, ſpirit-merchant.
J. Antill, Highgate, dealer in coals.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

PORTEUS' Lectures on the Goſpel of St. Matthew, 2 vol. 8vo, 13s.
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Myſteries of Abruzzo, 2 vol. 12mo, 7s.
Debrett's Peerage of England, Scotland, and Ireland, 2 vol. 18mo, 14s.

AVERAGE PRICES OF CORN,

May 15, 1802.

By the Wincheſter Quarter of 8 Buſhels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	65	3	34	7	33	1	23	3
Surry	66	0	34	0	33	8	22	0
Hertford	57	0	46	6	30	6	24	0
Bedford	63	11	25	6	34	0	19	1
Huntingdon	60	9	—	—	30	8	16	8
Northampton	65	2	44	0	28	10	15	4
Rutland	59	6	—	—	31	0	16	6
Leiceſter	68	0	41	5	33	7	16	9
Nottingham	74	4	48	0	36	6	18	0
Derby	78	0	—	—	42	0	20	4
Stafford	72	6	—	—	38	10	20	1
Salop	70	6	49	10	38	7	22	9
Hereford	61	3	41	7	31	7	22	9
Worceſter	64	11	39	2	32	11	25	11
Warwick	73	3	—	—	37	6	21	6
Wilts	56	4	—	—	29	8	20	8
Berks	62	11	—	—	28	9	23	4
Oxford	59	6	—	—	32	2	20	4
Bucks	63	0	—	—	34	6	22	3
Brecon	67	2	—	—	32	0	16	0
Montgomery	62	4	43	2	34	4	16	0
Radnor	65	3	—	—	34	1	18	6

Maritime Counties.

Eſſex	61	5	29	6	28	6	24	0
Kent	59	10	—	—	32	2	23	8
Suſſex	59	0	—	—	30	0	22	4
Suffolk	60	11	—	—	28	3	17	4
Cambridge	61	6	—	—	30	6	13	4
Norfolk	62	10	—	—	28	5	18	4
Lincoln	66	5	—	—	32	0	15	2
York	64	1	44	7	30	0	15	0
Durham	64	5	—	—	—	—	17	6
Northumberland	58	6	41	0	28	6	15	9
Cumberland	72	8	49	0	32	0	18	5
Weſtmorland	77	6	54	0	35	10	20	3
Lancaſter	69	5	—	—	39	9	19	2
Cheſter	64	1	—	—	40	8	20	4
Flint	66	10	—	—	—	—	—	—
Denbigh	72	6	—	—	41	1	18	6
Angleſea	—	—	—	—	28	0	—	—
Carnarvon	70	8	—	—	35	0	15	0
Merioneth	72	0	—	—	39	0	18	8
Cardigan	58	4	—	—	24	0	10	0
Pembroke	51	2	—	—	22	8	11	6
Carmarthen	58	0	—	—	28	7	11	10
Glamorgan	66	1	—	—	26	10	17	4
Glouceſter	65	9	—	—	29	5	21	1
Somerſet	60	6	—	—	25	10	—	—
Monmouth	65	9	—	—	31	8	23	0
Devon	58	3	—	—	25	10	14	10
Cornwall	58	1	—	—	25	4	14	6
Dorſet	61	4	32	0	27	11	26	6
Hants	57	8	—	—	28	8	21	0

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	64	4	41	0	31	8	18	10

May 27—Peck Loaf, 3s 2d.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, April 1802.

D.	H.	Baro.	T.out	T.in.	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c. Rain 1,08
1	7	30,43	38	45	54	o	NE 1	hazy
	2	30,30	51	50	44	o	E 2	
2	7	29,97	37,5	45,5	56	o	E o	hazy
N	2	29,84	58,5	52	47	1	S 1	hazy. foggy night
3	7	29,84	48	51	49	f	SW o	little wet at times: not cloudy
	2	29,88	57,5	55	52	4	E 1	. little rain
4	7	29,94	47	52	58	h	ENE 1	not cloudy: brighter
	2	29,94	57,5	56	58	3	ESE 1	hazy. cloudleſs eve
5	7	29,98	47	52,5	55	1	ESE 1	hazy
	2	30,04	60,5	57,5	49	1	WSW 1	. thick upward at night: fine
6	7	30,34	46,5	52,5	47	2	WNW 1	hazy
	2	30,42	55	55	41	2	NW 2	hazy. clear night
7	7	30,47	41	50	49	1	NW 1	hazy
	2	30,44	55	57,5	41	1	W 1	. cloudy night: fine
8	7	30,34	50	54	52	2	WSW 2	. cloudy. fine
	2	30,26	63,5	58	50	3	WSW 2	. calm and cloudy night: little rain
9	7	30,14	51	56	55	5	N o	. foggy and little wet: little rain. fine
	2	30,11	53,5	57	52	3	WNW 1	. cloudleſs eve
10	7	30,15	45	53	51	1	W 1	. more cloudy
	2	30,15	55	56	45	3	W 2	. cloudy: drizzly morning
11	7	29,83	51	54,5	56	5	WNW 2	rain. more wind and chiefly fine
	2	29,92	53	55	39	3	W 3	. little rain at eve. hail: fine
12	7	29,84	39,5	49,5	47	o	W 2	. little ſnow and hail. fine: little hail
	2	29,90	44,5	50,5	45	h	WNW 2	. little rain. fine: little rain
13	7	30,08	38,5	49	49	3	NNW 1	. ſhower of hail. fine
	2	30,21	49	50	47	3	NNW 2	. little rain at times
14	7	30,37	35,5	45	48	3	W 1	: cloudy
	2	30,22	51,5	49,5	45	5	W 1	. much ſmall rain: fair
15	7	30,20	48,5	51	56	4	WSW 2	. more or leſs cloudy at times
	2	30,20	55	52,5	52	5	WSW 2	. clear eve: little rain
16	7	30,08	37,5	46,5	57	h	SW o	. chiefly cloudy
	2	30,13	57,5	54,5	51	3	NW 1	: clear
17	7	30,32	45	51	53	o	WNW o	hazy. fine: cloudy
	2	30,33	59,5	56	48	4	W 1	. more cloudy
18	7	30,39	51	56,5	56	h	W 1	. little cloudy: fine
F	2	30,39	60,5	58,5	52	3	W 1	. cloudy night: little rain
19	7	30,43	54	57,5	59	h	W o	. chiefly cloudy
	2	30,43	62,5	60	56	5	W 1	. fine eve
20	7	30,39	53,5	58	57	h	W o	. cloudy: fine
	2	30,35	65,5	61	49	2	NW 1	hazy. cloudy
21	7	30,34	51,5	57	56	h	E 1	. not cloudy: fine
	2	30,33	58	58,5	52	2	E 1	hazy. clear night: cloudy
22	7	30,16	51	56	55	5	SW 2	. leſs cloudy
	2	30,07	60,5	59	52	4	WSW 2	. clear night
23	7	30,10	47	55,5	53	4	WNW 1	. little wet at times: ſhower. fine
	2	30,18	56	56,5	50	5	N 1	rain and fine at times. clear night
24	7	30,32	39,5	49	54	1	WNW 1	
	2	30,27	58	55	45	2	SW 2	. cloudy night
25	7	30,11	52	55	56	5	SW 1	. more wind and leſs cloudy at times
	2	30,03	59,5	57	53	5	SW 2	. rain. clear night
26	7	30,08	44	53	54	1	W 1	hazy
	2	29,99	57,5	55,5	45	2	SW 2	. cloudy. fine night
27	7	29,74	49	53,5	55	5	SSW 1	. much gentle rain
	2	29,71	51,5	55	56	5	W 2	much gentle rain. fair night: fine
28	7	29,91	41	49,5	54	1	N 1	: cloudy
	2	29,98	54	53	47	5	NNE 1	. cloudleſs night
29	7	30,14	44,5	50,5	54	5	NNE 1	. little wet
	2	30,18	51,5	52	51	5	NNE 1	. leſs cloudy. thick upward: little rain
30	7	30,29	45	51	56	4	NE 1	. fine
	2	30,35	52	57,5	44	2	ENE 2	

PRICES of STOCKS, from APRIL 29, to MAY 27, 1802, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stockbroker, No. 29, Princes-Street, Lothbury.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. Anns.	Old 5 per C. Conf.	New 5 per C. Anns.	Long Anns.	Short Anns.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C.	Imperial Ann.	Exch. Bills 3½d p.day.	Exch. Bills 3d per day.	Engliſh Lot. Tic.
29		76	77⅛ 76⅞	92	104 ¼	106 ⅛						6s. pr.	par	
30	195	76	77⅛ 76¾	92	104 ¼	106	21 ⅜		226			6	par	
1		75 ⅜	76⅝ 76⅜		104							6	par	
3		75 ⅜	76⅝ 76½	91 ¾	104	105 ¾	21 ⅛	5	225			7	par	
4		75 ⅜	76½ 76⅜	91 ¼	103 ⅞	105 ¼	21 ⅛	5	225 ½			6	1s. pr.	
5	193	75 ⅜	76½ 76⅜	91 ¼	103	105 ¼	21 ⅛	5	225 ½			4	1s. dif.	
6	193	75 ⅜	76⅝ 76⅜	91 ¼	103 ⅞	105 ⅛	21 ⅛		225 ¼			6	1	
7	193	75 ⅜	76⅝ 76	91 ¼	103	105	21 ⅛	5				6	4s. pr.	
8		75	76 75½	90 ⅞	102 ⅞	104 ⅞	21 ⅛	5	222			6	4s. dif.	
10		74 ⅞	75½ 74⅝	90	102	104 ¼	21					6	3	
11	191	73 ¾	74¼ 73⅞	89 ⅞	101 ⅞	103 ⅞	20 ⅞					6	3	
12	190	74	74⅝ 74⅜	89 ⅞	104	104 ⅜	20	5				5	4	
13	191	74 ⅛	75½ 74⅝	90 ⅛	103 ⅞	104 ⅜	21	5	223			4	5	
14		73 ⅝	74⅝	89 ⅞	102 ¾	103 ¾	20 ⅝					3	5	
15	191	74	75 74½	90 ⅜	102 ½	104 ⅛	21	5	220			3	5	
17		73 ⅞	74⅞					5				3	5	
18	190 ¾	73 ⅞	74¼ 74⅛	90 ⅛	102 ⅜	104	20 ¾	5	220			3	4	
19	189 ½	73 ⅛	74⅛ 74⅛	89 ⅞	102 ⅛	103 ¾	20 ⅞	5	219 ½			2	5	
20	190	73 ⅜	74⅜ 74⅛	89 ⅞	102 ⅛	103 ⅞	20 ¾	5	220			1	5	
21	189	73 ¼	74⅜ 74	89 ¾	102 ¼	104	20 ⅝	5	219 ½			2	6	
22		73 ⅜	74⅜ 73⅝	89 ⅝	102 ¾	104	20 ¾	5				2	6	
24		73 ⅜	74¼ 73⅝	88 ⅞	102	103 ¾	20		216 ½	71	11 ⅞	9	15	
25	185	72 ⅝	73⅜ 73	88 ¼	102 ⅛	103	20	4 ⅞	216 ½	71 ⅛	11 ¼	7	12	
26		73 ½	74 74½	88 ¾	102	103 ¼	20	5		71	12			
27														

☞ In the 3 per Cent. conſols. the higheſt and loweſt Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the higheſt Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial Annuities excepted, which are given within a ſixteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

excepted, which are given within a fixteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.